

SOCIAL STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Curriculum and Methods

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PREFACE

Social studies is today one of the major curriculum areas in junior and senior high schools. With its central purpose of developing effective citizenship, it has become an increasingly important part of the education of every boy and girl in our democratic society. This book, designed as a textbook for courses in curriculum and methods of teaching secondary school social studies, will enable teachers to present effectively the rich variety of available subject matter.

The organization is based on the needs of the prospective and beginning teacher. Materials to help him identify with the teacher's role, orient him to the field, and introduce him to specific methods and procedures comprise the first sixteen chapters of the book. The prospective teacher, now in a better position to grasp their significance, is next provided with detailed discussions of instructional materials, curriculum development, and historical background. The final chapters provide a bridge from pre-service preparation to in-service growth.

Throughout the book basic principles are closely related to new, specific classroom applications. Problems and techniques of working with slow learners and with gifted students, handling controversial issues, utilizing teacher-pupil planning and small group work, and conducting a well-rounded evaluation program are fully covered. Methods of teaching social studies skills, such as those required for critical thinking and reading social studies materials, are treated at length. Finally, the selected, annotated chapter references guide the reader to further study in the professional literature.

In planning and writing this book the authors have drawn upon their varied experiences with teaching classes in secondary schools, supervising student teachers, and working in programs of in-service education. More specifically, the organization and content of the book have grown out of the authors' courses in social studies methods taught at the University of Minnesota, Adelphi College, Iowa State Teachers College, and The City College of New York.

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Part I

SOCIAL STUDIES TODAY

THE TEACHER

What makes a "good" social studies teacher? There is no single recipe. One person may recall Miss Sanford, an elderly woman who dressed in a rather old-fashioned manner and held to formal standards of conduct in her classroom. Her lifetime of study had given her a deep understanding of the American past and an ability to interpret current happenings in the light of that past. Her lively interest in social problems, past and present, was contagious. Students came to her classes expecting to work hard but to find their work interesting. They considered Miss Sanford to be fair, though formal and firm. Another person may recall Mr. Jackson, a young man whose bulletin boards were never as neat as those in Miss Sanford's room and whose classes were much more informal. Mr. Jackson expected students to help decide what procedures the class would follow and to share in locating resources for class use. When discussions became lively, as they usually did, he reminded pupils to "Define your terms" or "Show us your authority." Mr. Jackson's emphasis on weighing evidence and drawing valid conclusions made a lasting impression on many of his students. Miss Sanford and Mr. Jackson are very different in age, in personality, and in the classroom procedures that they employ. Yet both are considered to be "good" social studies teachers, and they represent only two examples of the many good teachers who could be described.

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

With all their variations, successful teachers of the social studies possess certain identifiable characteristics. This conclusion is based upon a number of studies which have been conducted in the

United States over the past generation. In some of these studies, research workers consulted student judgment. In others, they analyzed the work of the teacher to discover what traits were needed. In still others, they gathered opinions from school administrators and teachers themselves. In addition to looking at these formal studies, it is helpful to examine the lists of traits drawn up by school officials as a basis for selecting teachers or recommending promotions within the school system.

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS. Secondary school students have reported that the teachers they like best and consider most effective are good-natured and cheerful, able to see and take a joke. Although the favorite teacher is friendly, human, and interested in pupils, he also enforces reasonable rules in the classroom and commands the respect of the students. He is consistent in his treatment of students—he does not have “pets” among the pupils. He avoids sarcastic remarks and nagging. He is considerate of pupils’ feelings and does not embarrass them publicly even though he must speak sternly in private. In short, the “good” teacher, from the students’ point of view, is a likeable human being who respects himself and his students, and extends to them the courteous treatment he himself would expect.

Students have indicated by large majorities certain other characteristics that “best” teachers have. They are well groomed, with attractive and appropriate dress. Their voices are pleasant to the listener, and they speak clearly and fluently. Good teachers, the students say, are enthusiastic about the subject they teach and, in addition, they have broad interests which they share with their pupils.

Research based upon analysis of classroom situations and of what is actually involved in the job of the teacher has led to conclusions that are strikingly similar to those expressed by students. From these analyses we learn that superior teachers are sympathetic and tactful, *but impartial and firm* in their relations with students. They dress attractively and appropriately. They have personal magnetism and vigorous personalities. Their interests are broad, and they demonstrate active imagination and curiosity about the world and the people in it. They are dependable, prompt, and adaptable. They have positive, constructive attitudes toward their work and get along well with colleagues and parents as well as with students.

Personal characteristics such as those listed above reflect intelligently optimistic attitudes concerning self, work, and daily living. Generally these characteristics can be developed, in considerable

measure, by the individual who chooses to do so. They are characteristics that are never finally nor completely achieved. There is always room for improvement, and growth once gained may be lost later. Continual, thoughtful attention is needed to develop and maintain these attributes at a desirable level.

An important part of preparing to be a social studies teacher, and of continuing to be effective, is striving to grow in desirable personal characteristics. There are no short cuts, no tricks of *personality development that will achieve this end*. A useful approach, however, is that of self-evaluation as a basis for self-improvement. An individual must recognize his poor habits of tardiness or of sloppy dress, for example, in order to correct them. He can gain *encouragement for further growth by recognizing his positive characteristics*. Experienced teachers as well as beginners find it useful and enlightening to apply a self-evaluation scale such as that given in Appendix C, and to use the results as a basis for a plan of self-improvement. To be effective, of course, self-evaluation must be honest. It is helpful for a teacher to discuss his self-ratings with someone who knows him well, and in whose judgment he has confidence.

ACADEMIC PREPARATION. High on the list of characteristics students have said are important in a teacher is that of knowing his subject. Adult observers, including teachers themselves, agree on the importance of a firm grasp of subject matter in order to teach it successfully. For the social studies teacher this is a broad assignment; indeed, it is a never-ending one. It involves gaining a knowledge of each of the social sciences: history, political science, economics, geography, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology.

Even as a beginner, the social studies teacher should understand the nature and scope of each of the social science fields. He should know the present emphases and trends in each. He should know the methods of each of the social sciences, including the basic tools used to work with social data. More specifically, the social studies teacher should understand the historical method which is used by all social scientists. He should be skilled in making and interpreting maps and in drawing inferences from them, and he should understand the methods used by geographers in identifying regions. He should be able to interpret the results of the economist's statistical analysis as reported through index numbers, time series data, studies of national income and production, and so on. He should understand the descriptive method of the political scientist, and his use of comparative analysis of governmental systems. To interpret

contemporary social science data, the teacher must understand such tools as the case study, the social survey, sampling studies, schedules and questionnaires, and sociometric scales and indices. (See *Selected Readings*.) He should be familiar with major social science journals, such as those named in Chapter 24, and use them as sources of information about recent trends in the social sciences. In addition, the social studies teacher should have a basic knowledge of related fields, such as literature, the fine arts, and the sciences, for he will find frequent occasion to draw upon them.

The most energetic student, by the time he graduates from college or even when he earns a master's degree, can have made only a beginning in his study of the social sciences and related fields. He can, however, have gained an introduction to each. He can have developed the habits and tools for independent study which will enable him to continue exploring any social science in which he lacks adequate preparation and to keep abreast of current developments in each field.

Because the social sciences are so broad, it is impossible (or at least unprofitable) to list exact "content" with which the social studies teacher should be familiar. Consequently, certification requirements in most states are given in terms of a minimum number of semester hours in the social sciences. In ten states this minimum is set at 24 semester hours, and in nine others it is 30 hours. The range is from 10 to 45 semester hours, with more than half of the states requiring 24 or more. The present trend is toward increasing the number of credits required. In a few states the requirements are stated by subject within the social science field.

The social science requirements for certification, even where they are reasonably high, represent only a minimum for the social studies teacher who seeks to develop his full capabilities. He must continue to study throughout his teaching career. As the future teacher completes his preparation for teaching, he will find it profitable to analyze his background in the social sciences and identify areas of greatest strength and weakness. He can do so by using the self-inquiry checklist given on page 462. Then he can plan a program of study in the social sciences, either through college courses or independent work, according to his needs.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION. The testimony of high school students is that effective social studies teachers not only know their subject, but also know how to "put it over." In one study, the reason mentioned most frequently for liking a teacher best is that he "is helpful with schoolwork, explains lessons and assignments clearly and thoroughly, and uses examples in teaching." Another

reason high on the same list is that the teacher "makes work interesting, creates a desire to work, makes classwork a pleasure." Supervisors and administrators would probably express these ideas in different words, but they also consider that teacher effective who can create interest, motivate learning, and help students to grasp and use the information and ideas of their subject field. A teacher's professional preparation, if it is functional, should enable him to do these things.

The ability to teach effectively grows out of an understanding of young people, their developmental and psychological patterns, and out of a knowledge of the psychology of learning. Effective teaching depends on clearly identified purposes. It involves the use of content that is suitable to the purposes and that can be learned by the students. Effective teaching involves the use of techniques and methods that are appropriate to the teacher, the students, and the content with which the class is dealing. Evaluation of progress toward the identified goals is a part of the process of effective teaching. The professional preparation of a teacher, then, must deal with each of these aspects of effective teaching.

The importance of an adequate professional preparation is recognized in state certification requirements for secondary school teachers. The number of semester hours of professional preparation required varies from state to state, but more than two-thirds of the states require 18 or more semester hours. In all but four states, student teaching is required for permanent certification. In many states, the requirements include adolescent growth and development, educational psychology, principles of secondary education, general methods of teaching, and, for social studies teachers, special methods of teaching the social studies. To learn the certification requirements of a specific state, a student should consult his college's teacher-placement office or write to the state education department in the state concerned.

Certification requirements have helped to shape the professional teacher education offered by colleges. Most students planning to teach the social studies, therefore, study courses that include at least some attention to the areas mentioned above. Every prospective social studies teacher should ascertain the certification requirements in the state in which he wishes to teach, and plan both his professional and his academic work accordingly. More important for his long-range success as a teacher, he must gain a thorough understanding of each of the professional areas listed above. With such understanding the social studies teacher enters his classroom equipped to deal with problems of teaching and

learning. Without it, he must proceed on a trial-and-error basis, often with unhappy results for his students and himself.

PHILOSOPHY OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION. Besides the personal characteristics, the academic studies, and the professional preparation that are needed for successful teaching of the social studies, there is another factor, one that is basic to all the others: a positive philosophy of social studies education. This is a factor that cannot be measured by checklists, nor can it be stated in terms of certification requirements. But the social studies teacher who has not clarified his own beliefs about the democratic society in which he lives, about the relation of the school and the social studies program within the school to that society, and about his individual responsibility to students, to school, and to his fellow man is likely to be teaching facts in a vacuum. However skillful he may become in managing the classroom and in presenting specific information, he will never rise above mediocre effectiveness in teaching the social studies.

Two decades ago, a yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies described four characteristics that were deemed essential for the social studies teacher in modern America: a will to discover the truth, through application of critical thinking processes, and to have students discover and accept the truth; deep, continuing interest in social conditions and the processes by which they are changed; attitudes of social optimism and social altruism, expressed through social participation; and the courage, vision, and determination to strive for an improved democracy.¹ The epoch-making events of the 1940's and the 1950's have brought many and great changes in our national society and in the world at large, but they have not altered the validity of this statement. The principles expressed in it are basic to the policy statement, "Freedom to Learn and Freedom to Teach," which was developed by the National Council for the Social Studies as a charter for social studies instruction in the mid-twentieth century (see *Selected Readings*). They are principles that should be thought through by each social studies teacher as one step in clarifying his own beliefs and goals in teaching the social studies.

CHALLENGES FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

Every teacher finds constant challenges in his work, regardless of the subjects he teaches and the age of his students. Each student

¹ Adapted from James A. Michener, "The Beginning Teacher," in *In-service Growth of Social Studies Teachers*, Tenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1939), p. 4.

and each class presents a unique personality with particular needs to be met and problems to be solved. The social studies teacher finds in his work all the challenges faced by teachers in general, plus those that arise from the nature of the social studies field.

The primary concern of social studies is to enable the citizen to understand his society in order to live effectively within it. Because our society is a dynamic, continually evolving one, the field of social studies is similarly dynamic, continually evolving. Content as well as plans for studying it must be continually revised. Since social change is often productive of controversy, the material of social studies frequently involves unsettled issues. From these conditions arise unique demands on the social studies teacher. Meeting them, even capitalizing on them, is a mark of the superior social studies teacher. A part of preparation for teaching social studies is a consideration of how to do so. Some current, outstanding problems are identified in the paragraphs that follow.

WORKING WITH CONTROVERSIAL MATERIALS. There is general agreement among leaders in American education that a functional social studies program must include, along with a mass of information about society, a study of controversial issues. With proper safeguards, materials presenting various shades of opinion concerning such issues should be utilized in the social studies classroom. Yet there seem to be teachers of social studies who avoid anything that is tinged with controversy, no matter how far this removes the classroom work from social reality. Some apparently do so because of fear of an unfavorable response from school administrators and parents. Others have failed to understand the values to be gained from the study of live issues, or have no knowledge of how to conduct such study in a constructive fashion. Both groups seem unaware that teaching about controversial issues has been subjected to renewed scrutiny in recent years and that many suggestions have been developed for dealing with such issues constructively and effectively. Specific discussion of the handling of controversial issues and materials will be found at appropriate points throughout this book, and especially in connection with the teaching of contemporary affairs (Chapter 14).

USING THE COMMUNITY. The teacher's need to learn about the local and regional community in which he is working is not new. This need has become increasingly urgent, however, as modern concepts of curriculum development have been accepted. They call for curriculum planning at the local level to adapt the school program to local conditions. The need for community study has been re-enforced as our conception of learning materials has ex-

panded to include the use of community resources. It is necessary if teachers are to understand student behavior in terms of family and community backgrounds.

Each of these basic reasons for knowing and using the community applies to social studies teachers with peculiar force. Since the social studies are focused on the citizen in his society, local conditions should have a greater part in shaping the social studies curriculum than in the case of mathematics or modern foreign languages, for example. For the same reason, local resources—factories, farms, businesses, civic groups, government officials—are especially valuable to a social studies program. Real experiences can be used as a basis for the more abstract learnings about social problems that may be gained through the printed page. Social attitudes of students, a prime concern of the social studies teacher, can be fully understood only as they are seen in the context of the local community. The reasons for knowing and using the community are sufficiently obvious that, for most social studies teachers, the question is not “why” but “how.” A variety of suggestions for knowing and using the community are presented in this book. Chapter 20 is devoted entirely to this topic.

USING RECENT LEARNING MATERIALS. Students and teachers of the social studies are fortunate in the wealth of learning materials that are available to them. Books, pamphlets, newspapers, magazines, films, recordings, and other materials dealing with social studies topics constantly flow from the printing presses and the studios. The stream is so steady, so large, and so varied in quality that it constitutes an embarrassment of riches. Probably in no other area of the school curriculum is the continuing supply so large and the need to utilize timely, well-prepared materials so great.

Knowing and evaluating available materials becomes a time-consuming task. Once selected and obtained, books, pamphlets, pictures, and other materials must be classified and arranged so that they are readily available. To use non-textbook materials effectively requires certain skills in planning and in conducting class activities—skills equally necessary for using textbooks in other than a routine manner.

Superior social studies teachers recognize that, in spite of the problems and effort involved, they can teach more effectively by using the cream of the new materials along with a relatively stable core of time-proven materials. They have studied the problems involved and devised ways of solving them. Short cuts for keeping abreast of the flood of new materials have been worked out.

Criteria have been developed for the evaluation of various types of materials, including those distributed without charge from commercial sources. Systems of classifying and storing materials have been developed and reported in the professional publications. Plans and techniques for class use of a number of sources instead of a single textbook have been worked out. In Part IV of this book, devoted to a discussion of materials, are a wealth of suggestions and plans for locating and using learning materials.

DEVELOPING STUDENTS' SKILLS. Research studies indicate that social studies goals related to the development of such skills as critical thinking, map-reading, reading social studies materials, and effective listening, writing, and oral expression are not being achieved to the extent that social studies educators and community leaders consider desirable. These skills are not developed unless teachers make a conscious effort to teach them. Most teachers find it more difficult to teach skills than to teach subject matter content; yet the skills may have more lasting value. It behooves the social studies teacher to learn effective techniques for helping students develop these skills. Suggestions will be found in Chapters 8-13.

DEVELOPING STUDENT INTEREST AND LASTING LEARNING. Research studies also show a remarkable rate of forgetting of information learned in the social studies and in other school courses. Isolated facts that are not used in everyday life are quickly forgotten. All teachers face the challenge of helping students develop important concepts and generalizations in such a way that more permanent learning will result.

A number of studies among high school graduates have revealed that students, by and large, have ranked history and many other social studies courses very low among those courses they considered either interesting or useful, very high among those they have disliked. In other schools, graduates have looked back upon their social studies courses with appreciation for what they learned. Social studies courses can be either dull drudgery or exciting and valuable, depending upon how they are taught. It is up to the social studies teacher to make his courses stimulating experiences for students.

Suggestions for organizing content and selecting methods in order to arouse interest and improve learning are presented in the chapters that follow. Chapter 4, for example, discusses principles of effective teaching; Chapters 5 and 6 treat ways of organizing learning experiences for desirable results. Other chapters and sections of chapters provide help for the social studies teacher who wishes to stimulate student interest and learning.

INDIVIDUALIZING INSTRUCTION. Social studies teachers, like teachers in other fields, have become increasingly aware in recent years of the individual differences that exist among students. Various factors have combined, however, to make progress in individualizing instruction slow or nonexistent in many social studies classrooms. Class size tends to be large, since social studies is usually a required subject. In some school systems the teacher may be expected to cover great amounts of social studies content—perhaps more than students can reasonably be expected to learn. The teacher himself, if he lacks a valid theory of learning and clearly identified purposes, may feel a compulsion to present more than can be mastered. The tradition of question-answer recitation based on a single text, a procedure which largely ignores individual differences, persists in many social studies classrooms. Probably this procedure results partly from pressure to “cover material” and partly from the fact that many who are teaching today have never themselves, as students, experienced any other procedure for social studies instruction.

Yet some social studies teachers have found a variety of approaches to individualizing instruction, even while working with large classes. More flexible curriculum planning, use of a variety of learning activities and materials, and finding a balance between group and individual assignments are some of the avenues that have been explored successfully, and reported in the professional literature. As secondary schools serve a larger and larger proportion of the youth of the nation, the range of individual differences increases. If the goals and values of social studies instruction are to be achieved, these differences must be dealt with more effectively than in the past. The need to do so is one of the challenges faced by social studies teachers. With this challenge in mind, individualization of instruction is treated at appropriate points throughout this book, especially in Part III.

CONTINUED GROWTH AS A SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER. Every teacher faces the need to grow in his chosen field of endeavor throughout his professional life. For social studies teachers this challenge takes particular forms. In the past, advanced study at a college or university was seen as the major or even the only road to continuing professional improvement. Today other means of in-service growth are also recognized. These are discussed in Part VI of this volume.

Meeting the need for continued growth as a teacher is partly a matter of attitude. The college student's approach to the study

of methods of teaching the social studies will have much to do with the attitudes he carries into his first teaching position. It is important to view "social studies methods" not as a series of recipes, but as ways of working with young people in a common pursuit of basic social studies values.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

COMMITTEE ON ACADEMIC FREEDOM OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. "Freedom to Learn and Freedom to Teach," *Social Education*, 17 (May, 1953), 217-20.

Emphasizes the importance of teaching controversial topics because of the needs of youths in American society.

RITTER, ED. "The Right Curriculum for the Mid-Twentieth Century," *Nation's Schools*, 50 (November, 1952), 48-50.

Describes results of a fifteen-year follow-up study of graduates from a California school district. The adverse reactions to social studies courses emphasize the need for a re-examination of social studies offerings and teaching methods.

BOOKS

ALLEN, JACK (ed.). *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1952.

Useful chapters on successful social studies teaching, teacher preparation, the teacher's relations with the community, and professional growth and activities.

FESTINGER, LEON, and KATZ, DANIEL. *Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1953.

Explains such research methods as the sample survey, field studies, laboratory experiments, sampling, objective observation, the use of records and indices, and interviewing.

GOTTSHALK, LOUIS. *Understanding History, A Primer of Historical Method*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1950.

Analyzes the historical method and presents a stimulating discussion of historical generalization and the problems of prediction on the basis of historical evidence.

JAMES, PRESTON E., and JONES, CLARENCE F. (eds.). *American Geography, Inventory and Prospect*. Syracuse, N.Y.: Syracuse University Press, 1954.

Perhaps the best single analysis of the methods used by geographers in general and in the different geographic subfields. Describes such techniques as aerial photographs, field work, use of new types of maps, and regional identification.

PRICE, ROY (ed.). *New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences*, Twenty-eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1958.

Profitable summaries of recent developments in each of the social sciences, including anthropology.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

Social studies is recognized as one of the major curriculum areas in both elementary and secondary schools. With its central purpose of developing effective citizenship, social studies has become a part of the general education to be provided for every student. An observer who moves from school to school in the United States, however, will discover a varied range of social studies offerings. Differences exist from one region to another, from one state to the next, and even from one community to another within the same state. There are differences in the curriculum pattern, and in the grade placement of social studies subjects, topics, and problems. There are also differences in the amount of time devoted to the field, and in the portions of the social studies program that are required of all students.

These variations exist because of the decentralized nature of the nation's public school system, in which schools are controlled locally. To some extent the variations result from efforts to fit the school curriculum to the conditions and needs of the local community or region. Differences in local traditions and in the willingness and ability of the teachers to experiment have also contributed to the many variations found in social studies programs today.

Along with the factors that cause variations in social studies programs, however, counterforces are at work to encourage uniformity. The fundamental objectives of the public schools are the same throughout the nation. Educators in every state accept for the schools such purposes as those expressed in the Seven Cardinal Principles of Education, or Purposes of Education in American Democracy. Teachers of social studies in all parts of the nation

come together in professional meetings where they exchange ideas. They read many of the same professional materials—yearbooks and bulletins of the National Council for the Social Studies, the magazine *Social Education*, and other publications dealing with social studies curriculum and teaching. They examine curriculum bulletins from school systems other than their own. Finally, and perhaps most influential of all, the same social studies textbooks are used in schools throughout the nation. Many teachers, in social studies as in other fields, continue to rely on a single textbook as the basis for classroom work. As long as this is true, it is difficult to overestimate the standardizing influence of a widely used textbook.

With all the variations that exist in social studies programs from one school to another, it is possible to identify common features that are present in many programs. A knowledge of both the variations and the common features is needed to understand today's social studies programs and to plan for effective teaching of the social studies.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

The field of social studies is concerned with people as social beings, their interaction with other people individually and in groups, and their relationships with their physical environment. The various social sciences—history, political science, economics, geography, sociology, anthropology, and social psychology—are also concerned with human relationships. The social sciences are systematically organized, scholarly bodies of knowledge that have been built up through intellectual inquiry and planned research. These logically organized bodies of knowledge are susceptible of study by persons of intellectual maturity. The social studies, on the other hand, consist of materials selected from the social sciences and organized for the instruction of children and youth. This selection is made on the basis of clearly defined purposes of the instruction, and the level of maturity of the learners who are to be taught.

The distinction between the social sciences and the social studies is not a mere quibble over words. The words themselves, like all words, have no inherent magic and are important only as they facilitate communication. The distinction is between systematically structured bodies of scholarly content and a psychologically structured selection of instructional content. Whatever labels he uses, the teacher who understands this distinction sees the need for

defining instructional purposes clearly and for studying the abilities and interests of his pupils. He recognizes the futility of presenting to students a mass of content that is incomprehensible to them, whether because of the abstractness, the difficult terminology, or other characteristics of the content. In short, an understanding of this distinction is basic to teaching as opposed to merely presenting social studies information and concepts.

In some cases, social studies subjects in the schools bear the names of the social sciences from which they are derived. This is usually true in the case of history or economics, for example. Others are given titles which differentiate them from the social sciences on which they are based. Thus the social studies subject drawn from political science is usually called civics, citizenship, or government, and "social problems" may denote elements drawn from sociology, economics, and political science.

PATTERNS OF ORGANIZATION FOR THE CURRICULUM

Curriculum specialists, in their studies of school programs, have classified patterns of curriculum organization under a variety of labels. Terms such as these have been used to identify a type of curriculum pattern: subject, broad-fields, correlated, fused, integrated, unified, core, common learnings, experience, and activity. Others could be mentioned, but these are enough to illustrate the point that there is great variety in the types of curriculum organization found in the schools and in the terminology used to describe these types.

It will be useful to think of curriculum patterns involving social studies content as they might be placed on a continuum such as shown in Table 1.

At one end is the curriculum organized on the basis of specific subjects, narrowly defined. At the other is the problem-centered, experience curriculum, in which content is drawn from any subject as it is needed in the study of a particular problem.

SUBJECTS. At the subject curriculum end of the continuum there is greatest emphasis on the integrity of each subject as a systematically organized body of content. History courses in a subject curriculum, for example, are likely to be organized chronologically and to include relatively little attention to the recent period. Civics courses, in a subject curriculum, tend to emphasize the structure of government. The separate-subject organization has been the traditional pattern for the social studies curriculum. (See Chapter 21.)

TABLE I
CURRICULUM PATTERNS

	I Social Studies Subjects	II Social Studies Fusion or Broad Fields	III Integrative Programs Combining Two Fields	IV Broad Integrative Programs
Description	Subjects narrowly defined	Fusion of subjects within social studies field	Integrative programs fus- ing social studies with an- other field	Broad integrative pro- grams, drawing content from any curriculum field
Organization	Content organized system- atically within subject	Content organized system- atically in chronological or logical plan or around top- ics or problems	Content organized around topics, problems or themes, not around subjects	Topical or problem-cen- tered organization of con- tent
Examples	Economic geography, United States history, civics	Problems of democracy, world cultures, world prob- lems	English-social studies core, common learnings	Problem-centered core, common learnings

In practice, however, most social studies subjects are more broadly conceived today than they were a generation ago. In most history courses, increased attention is given to social and economic history, with a corresponding decrease in emphasis on military and political history. The geographic factors involved in historical developments are stressed more often. Information about the structure and operation of the federal government is included in most United States history courses today, and some comparative government is presented in many "world" or modern European history courses. Some topics, such as labor-management relations or problems of maintaining international peace, are treated in topical or problems units in some United States or world history courses. A subject course in which other social studies subjects are thus drawn upon or in which materials are organized around problems instead of within the systematic framework of the subject would fall somewhere between I and II on the continuum of curriculum patterns.

FUSION OR BROAD-FIELDS. The second point designated on the continuum represents programs in which content drawn from the various social studies subjects is combined, or "fused." The material may be organized systematically, according to a topical or chronological plan. For example, a course in world cultures or "Man's Progress Through the Ages" may be organized within the framework of historical periods, but draw heavily on geography, economics, government, and anthropology for its content. Or a social studies fusion course may be organized on the basis of social problems. The most common example of fusion of social studies subjects has been the problems of democracy, or American problems course, in which materials from all the social studies subjects are combined for the study of such contemporary problem areas as "Improving Family Living," "Democracy versus Dictatorship," or "Financing Our Government." Civics or citizenship courses in the junior high school are, in some cases, organized around problems or functions of group living instead of on the basis of governmental structure. Where this is done, content is usually drawn from other social studies subjects in addition to government. In an increasing number of schools, civics courses include material on personal problems, vocational guidance, and historical background for the governmental problems that are studied.

The problems organization for fused social studies courses has been used less frequently in other areas of the social studies curriculum. A few schools have developed in lieu of chronological world history, courses in "World Problems" in which such problems

as "Man's Search for Peace," "Utilizing World Resources," or "Problems of World Trade" are studied. Sometimes these units are combined with "area studies" concerning such nations or regions as the USSR, Latin America, and the Middle East. In these area studies the history, geography, government, cultural achievements, and major contemporary problems of the area may be considered. There are also a few examples in current curriculum bulletins of social studies fusion courses in which United States history content is organized, along with materials from economics, sociology, and geography, around topics or problems.

INTEGRATIVE PROGRAMS. Integrative programs combining social studies content with that drawn from one or more designated curriculum fields go still further in breaking down barriers between subjects. Such programs represent points III and IV on the continuum. They take many different forms and are given a variety of names. The most widely accepted designation is that of core curriculum; other titles frequently found are: common learnings, unified studies, general studies, and basic studies.

Whatever the title, most integrative programs or courses have a number of characteristics in common. A block of time longer than the typical class period, perhaps two or three periods, is assigned to them. The content is drawn from more than one curriculum area, usually English and social studies, although in some cases science, mathematics, or still other fields are drawn upon specifically. In most cases, students enrolled in a core or common learnings course do not at the same time carry another class in a social studies subject or in the other curriculum area designated to the core course. Teacher-pupil planning is usually utilized to at least some extent, and many kinds of learning materials and activities are used. Ideally, skills are taught as they are used: that is, isolated drill periods are abandoned in favor of drill as needed. Provision for personal and educational guidance is usually made in the core or common learnings course. Some activities formerly thought of as cocurricular, such as special interest groups and home room activities, are included in many core programs.

Integrative or core programs with these common characteristics may yet differ greatly, according to the basis on which their content is selected and organized. Most of them can be classified roughly into one of two categories: a combination of subject areas, point III on the continuum; or a program focused on personal and social problems, with emphasis on the needs and interests of the learners, point IV on the continuum.

Integrative programs that represent combinations of two or more

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Integrative programs that represent combinations of two or more

curriculum areas may have a designated minimum content: from each area. Although subject lines are crossed over or even ignored, there is deliberate planning of the curriculum to insure that pupils will study this minimum content. The units to be studied may be organized around broad themes, topics, or social problems derived from the curriculum areas that are included. For example, a social studies-English core may be organized around the themes, "Our Developing American Heritage," or "Man Through the Ages." Historical chronology may furnish the framework for the study of the history, customs, literature, music, art, and other aspects of life in the various periods and regions included in the study. Most of the early experimental core courses, such as those developed in schools participating in the Eight-Year Study, were of this type, combining English and social studies. A high proportion of core courses in our secondary schools today represent this "subject-matter" or "unified studies" approach to an integrative program.

BROAD INTEGRATIVE PROGRAMS. Further from the separate-subject organization on the continuum are those core courses that are based on the needs, problems, and interests of youth, without regard to particular subject areas. In a few cases such core courses may be developed largely through teacher-pupil planning, with no preplanned problem areas assigned to a given grade level. In most cases, however, these courses provide for the study of preplanned problem areas. The units or problems to be studied are selected by the teacher and students from a suggested list that has been prepared by the school staff or a curriculum committee working with administrators. Albery notes the following problem areas, each of which involves content drawn from the social studies field as well as from other curriculum areas:

Orientation to the school	Resource development, conservation and use
Home and family life	Human relations
Community life	Physical and mental health
Contemporary cultures	Planning
Contemporary America among the nations	Science and technology
Competing political, social and economic ideologies	Vocational orientation
Personal value systems	Hobbies and interests
World religions	Public opinion
Communication	Education
	War and peace ¹

¹ Harold Albery, "Designing Programs to Meet the Common Needs of Youth," in *Adapting the Secondary-school Program to the Needs of Youth*, Fifty-second Yearbook, Part I, National Society for the Study of Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933), pp. 128-29.

Such a list indicates the scope, or breadth, of the total core program throughout the secondary school. In planning a core course for a given school year, particular problem areas that are appropriate to the needs and interests of the students may be selected. In some schools a list of problem areas is suggested for each grade, in order to provide for sequence of learning and to avoid duplication of emphasis from grade to grade.

COMMON CURRICULUM PATTERNS. In spite of variations in the organization of social studies programs, some generalizations can be made about the curriculum patterns that are commonly used.

Most children begin their study of social studies in the primary grades, through either a social studies fusion or an integrative program. One survey indicates that these patterns of organization for social studies instruction prevailed in Grades 1 to 3 in about nine-tenths of 118 city school systems that participated in a nationwide questionnaire study. When children study the community in Grade 3, as many do, elements of local history, economics, government, and geography are interwoven, often with materials from science, language arts, and other curriculum areas.

In the intermediate grades the balance begins to shift toward the separate-subject end of the continuum. About four-tenths of the city school systems which reported in the survey mentioned above were teaching separate social studies subjects, such as geography and history, in Grade 6. Other studies summarized by Fraser show the same preponderance of social studies fusion and integrative patterns in the primary grades and the same increase in the use of separate social studies subjects in the intermediate grades. Even in Grade 6, however, probably a majority of schools provide for fusion of social studies subjects, and some continue the broad integrative pattern throughout the intermediate grades. There is a continuing trend, in elementary social studies, to move away from separate subjects toward the more unified patterns of curriculum organization, even in the higher grades.

The further up the grade-level ladder the student moves, the more likely he is to study separate social studies subjects. In Grades 7 and 8 about half the schools of the United States teach social studies through separate subjects. The pattern of social studies fusion is used by perhaps one-fourth to one-third of the schools in these grades. In the rest, social studies content is combined with that from other curriculum areas and presented through some form of core curriculum.

From Grades 9 through 11, social studies is taught in an overwhelming majority of schools through separate subjects. In Grade

12, separate subjects share the field with the social problems course, which represents a fusion of the social studies subjects. As indicated above, however, there has been a growing trend in recent years to expand each of the social studies subjects to include materials from other parts of the social studies field. In some cases, perhaps in an increasing number, this expansion results in social studies fusion courses. This seems especially true of courses in citizenship or civics, in which there is increased attention given to personal and vocational problems. The course in problems of democracy is clearly a social studies fusion. Finally, a small minority of senior high schools include social studies in core courses, following an integrative curriculum pattern.

The question of what curriculum pattern should be used to organize social studies instruction is a continuing issue. Parents, teachers, curriculum specialists, and sometimes, high school students, have debated and continue to debate the merits of the subject curriculum as compared with the other forms. Some experimental research has been conducted in efforts to evaluate the results achieved through different curriculum patterns. Much more research is needed. Each pattern, as employed in our secondary schools today, has some advantages and some problems associated with it. The arguments supporting each curriculum pattern are presented in Chapter 22, where this and other issues concerning the social studies curriculum are discussed.

CONTENT OF PROGRAMS

Just as there is variation from school to school in the United States as to the organization of the social studies curriculum, so the content that is presented varies. Studies of the topics, themes, or subjects that are taught reveal a wide range of offerings at each grade level.

COMMON OFFERINGS. In spite of the range of offerings, however, one or two themes, topics, or subjects predominate in the social studies offered at each grade level in the public schools. The following summarizes recent studies of the content commonly taught in each school year from the kindergarten through the senior high school. The topic, theme, or subject found most frequently is italicized.

KINDERGARTEN: A series of topics or "interests," including *holidays, school life, home, immediate neighborhood, pets, store, garden, safety, keeping well, circus, boats, transportation, community helpers*

GRADE 1: *Life at home and at school; family helpers; community help-*

ers; farm life; food, clothing, and shelter; pets; transportation and communication; pioneer days; children of other lands; holidays

GRADE 2: *Community helpers; Eskimos; Indians; early settlers; farm life; schools; transportation and communication; stores; pets; food, clothing, and shelter; holidays*

GRADE 3: *Expanding community life—food, clothing, shelter (ways of meeting basic needs), Indians, Eskimos, colonial life, community helpers, schools, local community history, industries of local community, other communities, people of other lands, transportation and communication, farm life*

GRADE 4: *Ways of living in other lands (type geography regions), or the home state—history and geography; the local-community, history and geography; pioneer life; Indian life; physical geography; food, clothing, and shelter; Greece, Rome, Middle Ages*

GRADE 5: *History and geography of the United States (emphasis on colonial period and westward movement), or geography of western hemisphere, history of community and state, old-world backgrounds for United States history, geography of eastern hemisphere, civics*

GRADE 6: *Geography of western hemisphere; or history and geography of eastern hemisphere; world geography, old-world backgrounds for United States history, Latin America and Canada, United States history, geography and history of the home state, transportation, communication, commerce, history of records, interdependence, international agencies*

GRADE 7: *Geography (world), or geography of eastern hemisphere, or United States history, civics, history and geography of home state, old-world backgrounds for United States history, orientation, social living*

GRADE 8: *United States history, geography, state history, civics, social living*

GRADE 9: *Civics, economic citizenship, orientation, vocations, social living, ancient and medieval history, world geography*

GRADE 10: *World History, modern history, world geography, vocations, consumer education*

GRADE 11: *United States history, English history, problems of democracy, economic geography, world geography, sociology, economics, civics, world history*

GRADE 12: *Problems of democracy, government, economics, sociology, United States history, international relations, current events, psychology, geography*

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE OFFERINGS. Social studies is required of all children through Grade 8, and in many schools through

Grade 9. In the senior high school years, however, the only social studies course that is almost universally required is United States history. If a second year of social studies is required in a senior high school it is likely to be government or problems of American democracy. World history, the usual offering at Grade 10, is more frequently elective than required.

SCOPE AND SEQUENCE. To have significance, the summary of content taught at each grade level must be considered in terms of two dimensions of social studies programs: scope, or breadth of the total program; and sequence, that is, grade placement or vertical articulation from one year to the next. If a person examines the total social studies program in individual school systems, it becomes apparent that curriculums may differ considerably in the sequence or grade placement of social studies content, and yet have much the same general scope.

Almost all children in our public schools, as they move up the grade-level ladder, study about home, school, community, and their home state. They study about the geography of the different parts of the world, the history of their state and nation, and the duties of a citizen in the United States. They may, in the senior high school, study about the history of other nations—particularly those of Western Europe—and about international affairs today. The order, or sequence, in which one child studies these social studies topics or subjects may be different from that followed by another child in a neighboring city or state, but certain elements of content are found in most social studies programs. How fully these elements are treated and what additional content is drawn upon is determined by the scope that has been established for the program.

In some schools the scope of the social studies program is established by the textbooks that are used. This is a routine, thoughtless way of determining the breadth of the program. That it succeeds as well as it does is due to the improvement and enrichment of many textbooks in recent years. Where conscious attention has been given to curriculum planning, other more functional bases for determining the scope of social studies instruction are employed. For example, in Port Arthur, Texas, a list of major social functions of living was used to establish the scope of the social studies program. The list, adapted from the Mississippi state course of study, included: making a home, getting a living, securing an education, protecting life and health, cooperating in social and civic action, engaging in recreation, expressing religious impulses, expressing ideas of beauty, and improving material conditions. From this statement of social functions, objectives for the total social studies

program were formulated. These, together with the list of social functions, served as a guide in selecting content.

Other plans have been used to establish the scope of social studies programs. They include: major themes, such as "interdependence" and "adaptation to and control over nature"; basic social processes, such as "the process of economic organization" and "the process of developing culture"; areas of human relationships, such as "immediate social relationships" and "economic relationships"; and persistent life situations, such as managing money and making appropriate responses to others in social relationships. Under each of these plans, guide lines are provided for establishing the total content needed in the social studies program, in order to satisfy the social needs of the learner and the demands of society on him as a citizen.

A plan for sequence or grade placement of content in social studies programs is necessary to provide for vertical articulation and to eliminate needless repetition. Sequence has traditionally been determined by assigning a particular subject or portion of a subject to each grade. This continues to be the practice in many secondary school programs. Other plans for determining sequence have been applied in many elementary social studies curriculums and in some secondary programs. The most widely used is that of the "expanding environment." In this plan the student begins with his immediate surroundings and proceeds to the more distant and unfamiliar as he becomes more mature. Another pattern for sequence moves from the simple and concrete to the more complex and abstract. Each of these plans is presumed to take into account the maturity, experience, and interests of the learner at successive stages of development.

A SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAM

The general picture of the social studies curriculum given in the preceding section applies to some extent in every American secondary school, and it applies completely in none. Examination of a specific program outline will help in understanding and interpreting the general description.

The social studies curriculum recommended by the Connecticut State Department of Education follows generally the national pattern in the content assigned to each grade from 7 through 12, although some options are offered for choice by individual school systems: ²

² *Social Studies, Grades 7-12, Curriculum Bulletin Series, No. XIII* (Hartford: Connecticut State Department of Education, 1959), 52 pp.

Grade 7. The Geography of Major World Areas

1. Orientation to the school
2. Introduction to geography
3. The geographic features of western Europe
4. Agricultural and industrial development in Soviet Russia and eastern Europe
5. North Africa and the Middle East, center of the Moslem world
6. Africa, a continent that is rapidly modernizing
7. The geographic base of the orient
8. The geography of the western hemisphere
9. International trade of the major powers

Grade 8. American History

1. The age of exploration results in the colonization of the Americas
2. The American colonies gain their freedom
3. The westward movement brings the United States to the Pacific
4. Sectionalism threatens the unity of the United States
5. Big business and the end of the frontier bring a new era and new problems to the United States of America
6. The American people develop new institutions and reforms to bring about a better life and to extend democracy
- 7a. Optional (depending on sequence in Grades 9 and 10): The twentieth century finds the United States of America a world power
- 7b. Optional (depending on sequence in Grades 9 and 10): The adolescent and his future

Grade 9. Option A: Problems in Community Living

1. The adolescent and his future
2. Public leadership in community affairs
3. Problems in community government and living in home town
4. New conditions in Connecticut bring new problems to its cities
5. Connecticut citizens secure many services through their state government
6. Our national government
7. The United Nations' role in international affairs

Additional units for superior pupils:

8. Greek and Roman civilizations lay the basis for western civilization
9. Early Indian and Chinese civilizations lay the basis for oriental civilizations

Grade 10. Option A: Modern Civilizations

1. Optional: Greece and Rome: beginnings of western civilization
2. The Renaissance opens a new era in Europe
3. Democracy challenges autocracy in Europe
4. The industrial revolution and modern science change life in Europe

5. The cultural and intellectual developments in modern Europe
6. Europeans build colonial empires
7. War and peace in the twentieth century
8. Soviet Russia emerges as a world power
9. The Middle East, a link between European, Asian, and African civilizations
10. India, Pakistan and Ceylon make up the subcontinent of Asia
11. China, a growing power, adopts communism
12. Modern Japan as a world power
13. Southeast Asia: a crucial area in Asian and world affairs

Grades 9 and 10. Option B: European and Asian Civilizations, two-year sequence

First year:

1. The Beginnings of civilization
2. The Middle East—home of great ancient civilizations
3. Greece and Rome form the basis for Western civilization
4. The Middle Ages, a period of development and slow ferment in Europe
5. The Renaissance opens a new era in Europe
6. Democracy challenges autocracy in Europe
7. The industrial, scientific, and intellectual revolution changes life in Europe
8. Europeans build colonial empires
9. World Wars I and II are the result of great rivalry
10. Soviet Russia emerges as a major power in Europe and Asia

Second year:

11. The geography of Asia
12. India, Pakistan, and Ceylon make up the subcontinent of Asia
13. China, an emerging power in Asia, adopts communism
14. Modern Japan emerges as a world power
15. Southeast Asia, a crucial area in Asian and world affairs
16. The Middle East, a link between European, Asian, and African civilizations

Grade 11. United States History

1. The establishment of the United States of America
2. The growth of nationalism and sectionalism
3. The economic, social, and political development of the United States from 1860-1900
4. The United States emerges as a world power, 1896-1925
5. Cultural developments and reforms change American life
6. The great depression and its effects on national life
7. The United States becomes a leader of the free world
8. What the United States stand for today: the ideas and ideals of our heritage
9. Optional unit: The United States government in operation

Grade 12. Option A: Seminar on Contemporary Issues (for college-bound students)

1. The nature and importance of social problems in our world today
2. National defence: a crucial problem in today's world
3. Conservation of our natural resources
4. Science and society
5. Comparative government in the modern world
6. The role of education in American life
7. Relationships between majority and minority groups in the United States
8. Big business, little business, big labor, little labor—are they compatible? What is their role in our society?
9. The arts in American society
10. War or peace, the great problem
11. Optional: comparative religion
12. Optional: problems in community government and living in home town
13. Optional: our federal government and how it operates

Option B: Problems of American Democracy (for non-college-bound students)

1. The nature and importance of social problems in our world today
2. Marriage and the family in American life
3. Consumer information makes the dollar better spent
4. Crime and youth in the United States
5. The role of education in American life
6. Relationships between majority and minority groups in the United States
7. Conservation of our natural resources
8. American agriculture in crisis
9. Big business, little business, big labor, little labor—are they compatible? What is their role in our society?
10. International affairs occupy increased attention of all people
11. Democracy and authoritarianism in today's world

THE EVOLVING CURRICULUM

This description of social studies programs of today no doubt contains much that is familiar to college students through their own school experience. It may seem that the secondary social studies curriculum is static, except where the more experimental curriculum patterns are used. This is far from accurate. Changes in social studies programs occur slowly, but they are taking place continually. They are usually made in an evolutionary rather than a revolutionary fashion.

In a minority of cases changes may come through the addition

or deletion of a course. Each year a few secondary schools add a new course or courses to their social studies offering, and each year a few schools drop one or more courses. Most of these additions and deletions have little significance for lasting change. Lists of courses added in particular schools and of those dropped in others would include some of the same titles. A recent survey reveals, for example, that in the decade following World War II the following courses had been added by one or more school systems and dropped by others: economic geography, geography, international relations, a two-year course in United States history, and sociology. These courses when offered were probably electives, except in the case of the United States history sequence. They contain materials that are treated to some extent in the basic social studies offerings. Their deletion probably affected relatively few students; indeed, they may have been dropped because they did not attract adequate enrollments.

TABLE 2

SOCIAL STUDIES TOPICS RECEIVING INCREASED EMPHASIS

Topic	Grades in Which Most Frequently Emphasized	Other Grades in Which Emphasis Is Reported
Personal adjustment	9, 12	—
Orientation to school	7, 9	—
Family living	12	9
Consumer education	12	11
Intergroup education	12	9
Community study	9	12
Labor-management relations	12	11
Social and economic legislation	12	11
Atomic energy	12	11
Conservation	12	9
Communism	12	10
Global or world geography	10	9
The USSR	12	10
The Far East	10	12
The Pacific	10	12

More changes, and probably the most significant ones, seem to occur within established offerings. New units are introduced into a United States history course, for example, or one already included is expanded. Since World War II, an expanded treatment of United States foreign policy, international relations, and the United Nations has been introduced in many such courses. Other topics that seem to be receiving increased attention in secondary social

studies programs today as compared with a decade ago, and the grades in which they are usually emphasized are shown in Table 2. These topics cluster around critical problems of the modern world. The increased attention given to them is typical of the process by which the social studies curriculum evolves in American secondary schools.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

BOSSING, NELSON L. "Development of the Core Curriculum in the Senior High School," *School Review*, 64 (May, 1956), 224-26.

A study of trends in core curriculum offerings.

FRASER, DOROTHY MCCLURE. "The Organization of the Elementary-School Social Studies Curriculum," in *Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957. Pp. 129-62.

Reports patterns and trends in organization at the elementary school level.

GROSS, RICHARD E., and BADGER, WILLIAM V. "Social Studies," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3d ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. Pp. 1296-319.

Summarizes findings on history and trends in the social studies curriculum.

JONES, EMILYN. "Analysis of Social Studies Requirements," *Social Education*, 18 (October, 1954), 257-58.

Indicates results of a survey of large public school systems in 1953.

WATSON, BRUCE A. "Social Science and the Social Studies," *Social Education*, 21 (January, 1957), 25-27.

Argues against differentiation between the social sciences and the social studies.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

ALDRICH, JULIAN (ed.). *Social Studies in the Junior High School: Programs for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine*, Curriculum Series, No. 6, rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1957. Pp. 102.

Identifies needs of young adolescents, describes programs representing different types of organization, and suggests ways of improving the curriculum.

JOINS, EUNICE (ed.). *Social Studies in the Senior High School: Programs for Grades Ten, Eleven, and Twelve*, Curriculum Series, No. 7. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1953. Pp. 108.

Points out controversies over current offerings, identifies factors needing consideration in building curricular offerings, presents sample programs with different curricular patterns, and suggests improvements in the curriculum.

LURRY, LUCILE L., and ALBERTY, ELSIE J. *Developing a High School Core Program*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1957.

Chapter 2, "Defining the Core Program," describes various types of integrative programs and lists their common characteristics.

WILLCOCKSON, MARY (ed.). *Social Education of Young Children: Kindergarten-Primary Grades*, Curriculum Series, No. 4, rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1956. Pp. 158.

Includes examples of different organizational patterns at the primary school level.

Part II

PLANNING THE PROGRAM

OBJECTIVES

The function of goals is to give direction. This applies to the motorist who is planning his route for a trip, to the religious congregation that is building a new house of worship, or to the nation that is engaged in war. It applies to social institutions, including schools. It applies to the social studies teacher in his role as director of classroom activities and practical curriculum-maker.

When objectives are inappropriately chosen, inadequately defined, or incompletely understood, confusion and frustration are likely to result. When they are feasible, consistent with prevailing value patterns, clearly defined, and accepted by those concerned, objectives can serve their proper function.

DETERMINING EDUCATION GOALS

That objectives are essential in educational planning has long been recognized. Innumerable lists of goals or aims for the total school program and for the social studies have been drawn up during the past half century. Some have been short, others lengthy. One of the longest contained over 1,400 objectives for the social studies, and many of the lists ran to 500 or more. Some lists have stated goals in the most general terms, such as "to promote social efficiency" or "to develop good citizenship," whereas others have indicated specific facts to be learned. Some have included skills and attitudes to be developed; others have been limited to an indication of information to be "mastered." Today every curriculum guide includes a list of objectives, purposes, or desired outcomes, usually the product of many hours of committee consultation.

The effort thus spent in stating objectives has not, unfortunately, always or even usually brought desired results. Too frequently there has been little relation between the objectives stated in the curriculum plan and the actual activities carried on in the classroom. This situation does not prove that it is useless to define educational objectives. It does suggest that in many cases the goals of social studies programs have not been stated in a clear, usable fashion, that inappropriate goals have been selected, or that teachers have not understood and accepted the stated objectives. Which-ever factor or combination of factors is responsible, the situation emphasizes the need for more effective definition and use of objectives in developing social studies programs.

The process of curriculum-making involves many decisions on an operational level. What content shall be taught? What form of curriculum organization shall be used? Through what activities shall the chosen content be presented? How much time shall be given to a particular topic? What learning materials shall be used? How shall pupil progress be evaluated? Useful and consistent decisions on these points can only be made in terms of the answer to the more basic question: What are the goals of the instructional program? This question, in turn, pushes the curriculum-maker back to considerations that are yet more fundamental. What are the basic goals of our society? What are the accepted and the desirable values? What are the needs of individuals living in our society? Which of the goals, values, and needs thus identified can and should be the concern of the school?

Determining objectives, then, is a midway step in the curriculum process. It stands between the identification of goals and values accepted by society and the specific curriculum planning on an operational level. The purposes accepted for the school, and for the social studies program within the school, represent social policy; as such they must grow out of society's conditions and needs. To be valid as educational objectives, they must be susceptible of achievement through education. Objectives for the secondary school social studies program should be appropriate to the needs, abilities, and maturity of secondary school pupils in a particular school and community. (Needs, in this context, must be interpreted to include the broad developmental tasks of adolescence as well as immediate, recognized needs of young people.) Objectives must also take into account accepted principles of the psychology of learning, such as those concerning the role of motivation in learning and factors facilitating transfer of learning.

CHARACTERISTICS OF FUNCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

The school's objectives, once defined, should become a basis for the selection of content and learning experiences, and should serve as criteria for evaluating pupil progress and the school program itself. The objectives set forth for the social studies program should serve these same functions for that curricular area.

Dissatisfaction with the results of efforts to apply long lists of subject-centered goals has stimulated analysis and research concerning effective formulation and use of objectives. Today there is general agreement among social studies specialists that statements of objectives will be useful only to the extent that they possess certain characteristics, such as those described in the following paragraphs.

The scope of the objective must be identified clearly as long-range or immediate. All-school objectives constitute the most general level of educational goals. Long-range in nature, they can be achieved only through cumulative efforts over a period of years. They do not and cannot serve as day-by-day teaching objectives, but they give direction for such immediate goals. Objectives for the social studies program constitute a second level. Like all-school objectives, these are long-range goals to be achieved in developmental fashion from the early childhood grades through the secondary school. They are used to determine the over-all content and organization of the social studies program. Objectives of a particular social studies course operate at a third and more specific level. They serve to delimit and focus the year's work in social studies. Within the course, at a fourth level, definite goals must be developed for units or blocks of study. These immediate objectives must be sufficiently specific to serve as a basis for day-to-day work in the classroom.

A second characteristic of functional objectives is consistency. The goals of the social studies program must be in harmony with and must support all-school objectives. Course and unit objectives must be consistent with general social studies goals. Otherwise the immediate objectives will fail to implement long-range goals. The cumulative process by which concepts, attitudes, and skills are developed will be interrupted. Inconsistent objectives at the various levels will lead in a variety of directions, with resultant conflict and frustration for students and teachers.

To be functional, objectives must be sufficiently concrete, specific, and limited in number to guide the selection and organization of content. The degree of specificity needed varies from the all-

school objectives, which must by their very nature be stated broadly, to the unit objectives, which should be sufficiently concrete and definite that progress toward their achievement can be made and evaluated during the unit. A reasonable number of objectives should be selected for the unit, the course, or the total program. Too long a list leads to confusion and superficiality. The usefulness of the list of goals as a basis for the selection and organization of content is then destroyed.

Social studies objectives should be stated as desired student behaviors, rather than as blocks of subject matter to be learned. The desired end-product of social studies instruction is the citizen who thinks and acts in ways that are personally and socially constructive. Subject matter is to be used to achieve these behaviors, rather than to be learned for itself. Objectives stated as behaviors provide clearer, more direct guidance for the choice of content and procedures than do objectives stated in more traditional terms.

A functional statement of objectives must be comprehensive. It should include attention to skills, attitudes and values, and basic concepts and generalizations. Indeed, in recent years the three categories of concepts, attitudes, and skills have frequently been used to classify and organize social studies objectives.

Finally, social studies objectives, like other educational objectives, should be formulated or selected by those who are to use them. Teachers should share in the goal-setting process. This does not mean that each social studies staff must begin anew each year to determine objectives, nor does it suggest that a teacher or a committee should ignore what others have done. A committee studying a particular part of the social studies program will undoubtedly profit from examining the conclusions of similar committees and of social studies specialists. It does mean, however, that objectives will guide the teaching-learning process only to the extent that they are understood and accepted by the teacher. Teachers have come far from the day, only a generation or so ago, when objectives were decided upon and handed down to teachers by state departments of education, teacher education specialists, or the supervisor of social studies.

Students, too, can profitably share in selecting their learning goals, working at a level appropriate to their maturity. Pupil objectives for a block of work, however, are rarely identical with those of the teacher. The latter are usually more refined and more consciously geared to the broader purposes of the course, the total social studies program, and the school-wide goals, than are the objectives recognized by pupils.

ALL-SCHOOL OBJECTIVES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Two of the numerous statements of objectives for American public education that have been developed in recent decades have had particular influence on secondary schools. They are the Cardinal Principles of Education and Purposes of Education in American Democracy. As goals for the social studies are considered, it will be useful to examine these statements of general educational objectives in the light of their implications for social studies teaching.

The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education were stated in 1918 by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, a commission set up by the National Education Association. The seven objectives listed were: health, command of fundamental processes, vocational efficiency, worthy home membership, citizenship, worthy use of leisure time, and ethical character. These are broad goals, oriented toward the demands of modern democracy on its citizens and toward the needs of individuals living in that society. As we look back almost half a century, the formulation of the Cardinal Principles was a milestone in the development of secondary education and in the teaching of social studies. It marked the shift from emphasis in the public high school on an academic, college preparatory course for the few to an effort to prepare the many for adult living in a democratic society. This shift gave increased importance to the social studies field in school programs. The social studies became recognized as a curricular area through which the newly emphasized social and civic learnings would be largely achieved. A school in which the seven Cardinal Principles were accepted as goals could no longer relegate the social studies experiences of students to a minor position. Nor could the social studies offering be limited to traditional elements of history, geography, and civics. Social and economic aspects of history and geography had to be included, along with materials drawn from economics and sociology. Civics was transformed from a study of governmental structure to focus on the functions of government and the duties of citizenship.

The ideas presented in the Cardinal Principles of Education were restated and expanded, with changes in emphasis, by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in Purposes of Education in American Democracy. This document, first issued in 1938, was republished in 1946. Since its first appearance, it has been studied by teachers and curriculum committees of many school systems, and it is frequently adopted

or adapted to become the basis for curriculum planning. The goals of education are grouped under four headings: self-realization, human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. Within each group the objectives are stated in terms of behaviors of the "educated" person or citizen. Even a cursory review of Purposes of Education in American Democracy suggests emphases that are appropriate for a modern social studies program. The long range concern is not for "mastery" of specific facts, but for the *use of facts* to develop understandings and attitudes that will lead to socially constructive action. In each group of objectives there are some that are primary for social studies instruction. Most of those listed under "civic responsibility" come in this category. Others deserve attention as peripheral goals that should nevertheless receive definite support through social studies experiences. To illustrate, the student's work in social studies should help him speak the mother tongue clearly, read it efficiently, and write it effectively, although the primary responsibility for developing these skills is carried by the English classes.

The social studies teacher has an obligation to formulate goals for his own teaching that are in harmony with the objectives of the school. If a statement of all-school objectives has been developed by the staff, the social studies teacher can check against this statement. If not, he can use one of the generally accepted statements of the goals of secondary education for this purpose.

GOALS OF PROGRAMS

The objectives of the total social studies program, being long-range goals, should indicate lines of development and the ultimate outcomes that are desired. It is not their function to delineate plans for day-to-day work or to suggest specific facts to be studied. There is variation among school systems, however, in how fully the over-all social studies goals are spelled out. Where they are stated in broad terms without specific analysis, as in the first example below, objectives for each course and for units therein must be developed in considerable detail if they are to fulfill their function. Where a full analysis of the over-all goals is made in stating program objectives, course objectives may be arrived at by selecting specific aspects from the over-all list. This plan has been followed in the second example that is given. Other examples of both approaches may be found in published courses of study.

The curriculum committee that developed *A Guide for Instruc-*

tion in the Social Studies for the State of Minnesota stated the objectives of the total program as follows:

To develop the character and integrity of the student; to instill in his mind a desire to live a rich, ethical life, and to make his contribution to the common welfare.

To develop an intelligent patriotism as well as pride and faith in our heritage and the ideals of American democracy. While the rights of American citizens need to be taught, the duties and responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy must be emphasized. There must be developed a respect for the dignity and worth of each individual regardless of his race, religion, or socio-economic status.

To develop in the student an inquiring mind—a mind that seeks the truth.

To develop good mental health in the student and to establish wholesome mental and emotional attitudes and habits.

To develop the understandings necessary for intelligent citizenship; to understand the meaning of culture and the character of human nature; to acquire sufficient background to become an informed citizen who can actually participate in solving social, economic, and political problems at all levels, local, state, national, and international.

To develop a desire for better civic behavior; a willingness to cooperate with others in a democratic way; and an allegiance to the democratic way of life.

To develop ability to observe, analyze, and form well-considered judgments about government and public affairs; to learn sound methods of investigation, to acquire ability to evaluate information, and to think critically and constructively about social, economic, and political issues of the day; to see clearly the role that individuals and organized groups can play in solving the problems of democracy.³

Social studies teachers in one high school developed a more *specific statement of program objectives, which is illustrated here* by means of excerpts:

The social studies program should help each student achieve at the level of his individual capacities and become an effective citizen in our democracy. The effective citizen exhibits competence in the areas of human relationships, personal-economic affairs, socio-economic affairs, political affairs, and international affairs. To be competent in these areas, the citizen must:

1. Understand and apply important generalizations in each area — — —
2. Attack problems in these areas in a rational manner
3. Locate and gather information in these areas
4. Evaluate information in these areas
5. Organize information and draw logical conclusions
6. Work effectively with others

³ Curriculum Bulletin No. 17 (St. Paul, Minnesota: State of Minnesota Department of Education, 1955), 453 pp.

7. Communicate effectively with others
8. Consider events in historical perspective
9. Consider events in terms of spatial relationships
10. Maintain an active interest in current affairs and social science materials
11. Exhibit attitudes consistent with *democracy*

The teachers defined each of these objectives in terms of more specific behaviors. For example, they described the student who "maintains an active interest in current affairs and in social science materials" as one who:

1. Reads editorials, political columns, and news items in daily newspapers
2. Reads articles about social science topics in current magazines
3. Reads books dealing with social science topics, both at the suggestion of the teacher and on his own initiative
4. Listens to radio and television broadcasts of news, speeches, and programs related to social science topics and problems
5. Goes to movies and plays dealing with social science themes
6. Attends public lectures and meetings dealing with social science topics and problems
7. Enters into discussions about social science topics in the classroom, in the halls, and outside of school
8. Takes action related to social science problems by working for such organizations as political parties, community agencies, or social action groups, and by writing letters to newspapers and government officials

In addition, these teachers spelled out skills objectives in considerable detail and charted the grade levels at which each should be emphasized. They also identified, within each of the five stated areas of competence, broad generalizations that were to be developed in cumulative fashion through the junior and senior high school years. The generalizations were to serve as a guide for content selection. A partial listing of those agreed upon in the area of political affairs, for example, includes the following:

1. Democracy is based upon a belief in reason and peaceful settlement of disputes rather than belief in a resort to force.
2. Democracy is dependent upon the efforts of the people and their willingness to study issues, hold office, and do jobs.
3. In a democracy it is easier to make one's influence felt if one joins with others of like mind.
4. Freedom of speech and press are essential to the democratic process.
5. In a large nation with diverse social and economic groups, compromise is frequently necessary.

COURSE AND UNIT OBJECTIVES

The social studies class and its teacher, working within the framework of school-wide objectives and the goals of the total

social studies program, need the more specific direction of course and unit objectives. Whether selected from a fully developed statement of social studies program objectives or developed to implement a briefer listing, course and unit objectives represent more immediate goals. In terms of these goals, specific plans are made, content and activities are selected, and student progress is evaluated. These goals include attention to understandings or generalizations, skills, and attitudes to be developed. Thus, course objectives should grow out of and implement the more general social studies objectives, and unit objectives should have the same relationship to course objectives.

An examination of an example will help to clarify the relation of program, course, and unit objectives. To implement the general program objectives given in the Minnesota Guide (see p. 39), the state curriculum committee listed these goals for the eighth-grade social studies course, which deals with world geography:

Knowledge and understandings

The relationship between man's development and his physical environment.

The need for conservation of natural resources.

The relationship of past migrations and transportation methods to the present distribution of races and people.

Influences of different types of transportation on man's economic activities.

The true shape of the world.

The extension of physical features such as highlands and plains across political boundaries.

The influence of latitude, altitude, land masses, and water bodies in developing differences in climate.

The relationship of climate and soils to vegetation.

Attitudes

An interest in other lands and peoples.

An attitude of respect for the culture of other peoples and an appreciation of their customs and habits.

An appreciation of the rich resources of the earth and a desire to use them wisely.

A feeling of reasonable optimism for a better world both materially and spiritually.

A recognition that man is one species and that a common humanity underlies all differences of culture.

Skills and abilities

Measure distances correctly on globes and maps.

Interpret map scales, legends, latitude, longitude, and different types of map projections.

Draw and sketch maps to scale, and to use maps for the presentation of data.

Construct graphs and charts useful in the study of geography.

Visualize places and conditions beyond the immediate environment of the individual.

Spell important geographical names and terms.

Acquire the habit of associating events with places.

Use the index, table of contents, dictionary, and library materials.

Develop further skill in giving oral reports, written reports, and organizing data.

For the first unit of work in the eighth-grade course, "A Brief Survey of World Patterns," goals which were still more specific were developed to implement the course objectives:

Understandings

The reasons for the unequal distribution of the world's people.

Man's dependency upon other parts of the world for his needs, as he develops a high stage of civilization.

The concept of a world which is becoming smaller because of better and more rapid transportation.

The differences in mountain lands and plain areas at the same and different latitudes.

The spatial relationship of land masses on the globe.

The concept of time zones.

The explanation for seasons and the changes of length of day and night.

The planetary wind system and its relationship to ocean currents.

Attitudes

An interest in other places.

A desire for information about other peoples and places that can aid one to obtain a better understanding and fuller appreciation of one's own surroundings.

An appreciation of the fact that not all places and peoples are as well located or supplied with resources as the people of the United States.

Skills

See Skills under "General Outcomes desired for Grade 8."

(The teacher is to select from the list of skills and abilities given for Grade 8, those that are appropriate for emphasis in this unit.)

A comparison of the understandings listed for the program objectives, the course objectives, and the unit objectives will show that there is consistency among the goals stated for these three levels. The understandings to be stressed in the unit are more specific than those recommended for the course, and serve to implement the latter. The understandings to be developed in the course bear a similar relationship to those that are stated as program goals. The same thing is true of the attitudes listed for each level. Skills are treated very generally in the program objectives of the Minnesota curriculum, but are spelled out specifically in the objectives for the eighth-grade course, while at the unit level the teacher is to select from the course objectives those skills which are appropriate for the unit as he will develop it. It is his responsibility to insure a balanced development through the year of the skills listed for emphasis in the course.

THE "OBJECTIVES PROBLEM"

There is considerable evidence that the worthy goals stated for social studies programs in the schools are far from being achieved. The proportion of potential voters who actually vote, even in a presidential election, reflects apathy about political affairs on the part of many citizens. Polls and surveys indicate that many adults lack essential information on which to base reasoned judgments about public policies and problems.

Recognizing that desirable objectives will probably always run ahead of the attainment of them, this situation nevertheless gives rise to serious questions about the stated goals for many social studies programs. Desirable as they may be, are they impossible to achieve through the school's efforts? Would social studies instruction make a greater contribution to the well-being of society and of individual citizens if more limited and more realistic objectives were sought? If the generally accepted statements of goals for social studies programs are valid, does the gap between long-range objectives and citizen performance result from lack of clarity in intermediate and short-range goals, so that the over-all objectives are not effectively implemented? Or are the discrepancies between program goals and citizen behavior due to other causes that are within the school's pervue, such as inappropriate selection of content or inadequate instructional methods and materials?

There are no simple answers to such questions as these, but they deserve thoughtful consideration by all who work in social studies education, or are preparing for this field. As for the general ob-

jectives, there are current demands for a more precise formulation of the functions and goals of social studies programs. There is also one hypothesis about the problem of implementing the broad goals as now stated that should be considered. It is that many teachers do not define their intermediate and short range goals clearly and specifically within the context of the program goals, and their instruction therefore does not contribute to achievement of the broad goals.

An examination of published courses of study selected at random will produce some evidence to support this hypothesis. Many of the committees that have prepared such bulletins seem not to have differentiated clearly between the various levels of objectives nor to have had in mind a comprehensive picture of instructional goals. Too frequently the stated goals for courses and for units within the courses are at such a general level that they provide little direct guidance for selection of content and procedures or for evaluation of pupil progress. Too frequently there seems to be little direct relation between the stated objectives and the suggested content. On the other hand, it is impossible to make exact statements of short-range objectives that would be valid in every classroom. The teacher himself must have the freedom to formulate specific goals that will be suitable for his particular students.

The "objectives problem" will not be solved overnight, nor by one teacher acting alone. But each teacher can contribute to its solution by clarifying his own objectives at the short-range, intermediate, and long-range levels and using his identified objectives as a guide for the daily work of his students.

Clearly defined objectives are essential for the development of an effective social studies program. In the social studies classroom where objectives are used, not merely stated, the teacher has them constantly in mind as a guide for daily activities. Students are at least aware, at a level appropriate to their maturity, of what the teacher expects them to achieve and why. Ideally, students will have some share in establishing objectives and translating them into classroom activities.

Using objectives means selecting content that will implement them, and providing for its study through processes or activities that will also implement the accepted goals. It also means applying the objectives in evaluating the progress students have made during the unit of study. Students will be tested on information they have studied. But along with this kind of evaluation will go attention to questions such as these: Is the student able to apply his new

information in thinking about related problems? Does he generalize from it in an appropriate manner? Does the student demonstrate better command of social studies skills that have been stressed in the unit? Does his behavior in word and deed indicate any growth in desirable attitudes that were stressed in the unit?

Using objectives involves making choices at each step of the teaching-learning process. In deciding between alternatives as to content, activities, and evaluation measures, it must be remembered that there is usually more than one road by which the goal can be approached. The task is to select the route that will best serve a particular group as it moves toward the goal.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

"Characteristics of the Good Democratic Citizen," *Social Education*, 14 (November, 1950), 310-13, 319.

A list of behavioral goals prepared by a committee of the National Council for the Social Studies. The list is based upon a study of questionnaire returns from over three hundred leaders in every walk of life.

CUMMINGS, HOWARD. "The Public Opinion the Schools Desire to Achieve," in John Payne (ed.), *The Teaching of Contemporary Affairs*, Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1950. Pp. 1-10.

Defines behaviors exhibited by the "citizen who is able to contribute to the formulation of sound public opinion."

"Geography in the Elementary and Secondary Curricula," *Journal of Geography*, 54 (April, 1955), 203-7.

Presents a statement of objectives prepared by a committee of the National Council of Geography Teachers.

HANNA, PAUL R. "Generalizations and Universal Values: Their Implications for the Social Studies Program," in *Social Studies in the Elementary School*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957. Pp. 27-47.

Defines concepts and generalizations and describes one procedure for identifying important generalizations for use in developing a social studies program.

TYLER, RALPH W. "Translating Youth Needs into Teaching Goals," in *Adapting the Secondary-School Program to the Needs of Youth*, Fifty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953. Pp. 215-29.

A clear-cut statement which differentiates between two types of youth needs, clarifies the role of schools in meeting these needs, and describes a procedure for establishing educational goals.

BOOKS

BLOOM, BENJAMIN S. (ed.). *The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals Handbook I: Cognitive Domain*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1950.

Identifies six categories of intellectual abilities and skills. Defines each in

terms of behaviors involved and cites examples of these behaviors in different curricular fields.

BURTON, WILLIAM H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.

Chapter 13 presents a valuable discussion on the statement of unit objectives. Differentiates between teacher and pupil objectives.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION. *Policies for Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D.C.: Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, 1946. Pp. 277.

A collection of three reports: *The Unique Function of Education in American Democracy*, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, and *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*. Essential reading for social studies teachers.

FRENCH, WILLIAM (ed.). *Behavioral Goals of General Education in High Schools*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1957.

Presents a list of educational goals, each defined in terms of illustrative behaviors. Charts show the relationships of these goals to those developed by the Educational Policies Commission.

WESLEY, EDGAR B. (director). *American History in Schools and Colleges*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1944.

Chapter 2 contains a delightful essay on the values of history.

THE LEARNER AND THE LEARNING PROCESS

Two generations ago a teacher could say, "I teach history," and reflect an accepted definition of his function. Then came a reaction, influenced by research in psychology and child development, and some teachers were saying, "I teach children—not history." Today one statement seems as outmoded and as partially valid as the other. The social studies teacher in secondary schools is expected to teach appropriate social studies content to young people. He cannot do so, however, without an understanding of the adolescents in his classroom and a knowledge of how they learn, as well as knowledge of the content to be taught.

DEVELOPMENTAL CHARACTERISTICS OF ADOLESCENCE

Adolescence is defined as the period during which the individual develops from a child, dependent on parents and other adults, to a young adult capable of responsibility for himself and in his relationships with others. In terms of chronological age, adolescence is usually considered to include the years from about 12 to 18 or 19.

No two persons are exactly alike or develop in identical ways. Yet general patterns of growth from late childhood to adulthood have been ascertained through continued and detailed observation. Anthropologists, psychologists, biologists, and specialists in human development have joined forces to identify these patterns, and to interpret what it means to be an adolescent in mid-twentieth-century United States.

PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT. The most obvious aspect of the adolescent's growth is his physical development—the increase in height,

weight, and over-all size, and the development of secondary sex characteristics that come with puberty. Early adolescence, usually including the years from 12 or 13 to 15 or 16, is marked by rapid growth, often accompanied by awkwardness because of uneven development of various parts of the body. For most young people it is a period of good health, although quick fatigue may accompany exercise. In terms of chronological age, most girls reach puberty a year or two ahead of most boys, but differences in the rate of maturation are greater among members of each sex than between the two sexes. Girls who develop normally may arrive at puberty, marking biological readiness for parenthood, as early as 10 or 11 and as late as 16 or 17. The range among boys is equally great.

In later adolescence, corresponding roughly with the senior high school years, or the ages 16-17 to 18-19, growth continues but at slower rates. There is further development in secondary sex characteristics. Motor coordination improves. Boys catch up with girls in physical size, and both boys and girls find themselves stronger and less susceptible to fatigue. Later adolescents, however, are noticeably subject to colds, contagious diseases, and other physical conditions arising from irregular habits of eating and sleeping.

INTELLECTUAL AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT. Intellectual development may proceed as erratically as physical growth during adolescence. *Daydreaming, difficulty in concentrating, difficulty in managing time, and lack of interest in abstractions* may characterize the early adolescent, particularly if his physical growth pattern deviates markedly from the average. Yet with many young people this period is one of steady advance in comprehension of time concepts, broadening of interests, and ability to reason. As he moves into later adolescence, the typical student develops a longer attention span and grows markedly in his ability to concentrate, generalize, understand cause-effect relationships, and reason critically. His interests become deeper and more selected, and may be focused to some extent on vocational plans.

The social and emotional maturation of the adolescent is affected by his physical and intellectual growth, and by the demands of his cultural environment. He is expected to establish new, increasingly adult relationships with his peers of both sexes, with the members of his family, and with adults outside the family. He must choose and prepare for a vocation. He is working, consciously or unconsciously, to establish his own ethical standards. He must develop a new self-concept that takes into account his changed or changing body and his changed or changing status in the adult community.

Anxiety and conflict frequently accompany the young person's efforts to carry out these processes successfully. As a consequence, adolescence is a period of crisis for many boys and girls—and for their parents and teachers. Anthropologists and sociologists point out the complexity of adolescent adjustments in the mid-twentieth-century United States, where the normal span of education and economic dependence upon the family is continued far beyond the time when biological maturity has been reached.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASKS OF ADOLESCENCE. Havighurst and his associates (see Selected Readings) have studied the developmental tasks that the adolescent in our culture must achieve in order to grow into a healthy, well-balanced, and successful adult. They identify ten of these tasks, or goals, as follows:

1. Achieving new and more mature relations with age-mates of both sexes
2. Achieving a masculine or feminine social role
3. Accepting one's physique and using the body effectively
4. Achieving emotional independence of parents and other adults
5. Achieving assurance of economic independence
6. Selecting and preparing for an occupation
7. Preparing for marriage and family life
8. Developing intellectual skills and concepts necessary for civic competence
9. Desiring and achieving socially responsible behavior
10. Acquiring a set of values and an ethical system as a guide to behavior

Normally developing adolescents progress toward these goals, each at his own rate and with his own pattern of difficulties and successes. In doing so, they inevitably encounter problems. The events and pressures of his society affect a young person's development and may intensify his difficulties in a particular area. Thus the adolescent of the depression decade of the 1930's worked at the task of selecting and preparing for an occupation in a very different milieu than does the adolescent of the present day. Opinion surveys among young people reveal great concern today with the effect that required military service and threats of war will have upon them. The contradictions concerning moral standards and ethical values that characterize contemporary American life increase the adolescent's difficulty in building his own set of values and in achieving socially responsible behavior.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING. To achieve their developmental tasks successfully, adolescents need all the help the school can give. The social studies teacher, with at least as much preparation

in adolescent psychology as his colleagues in other fields and with presumably a deeper understanding of contemporary society and its pressures on youth, must accept a full share of responsibility for giving this help. Indeed, the central purposes of the social studies stress such goals as those indicated in Havighurst's developmental tasks numbers 8, 9, and 10, which concern the development of civic competence, socially responsible behavior, and an ethical system. Tasks numbers 5 and 6, related to economic understandings, are equally clearly functions of the social studies program. The student can be given effective, if less direct, help in social studies in working through other development tasks. To provide this help, the social studies teacher must choose and focus both materials and methods upon the developmental task areas. To do so he may find it necessary to utilize some materials not traditionally employed. More important, however, the teacher must focus conventional content and methods in a way to help adolescents understand and progress with their developmental tasks. In doing so, he will vitalize social studies for students, for they will respond most eagerly to that which they can see affects them. The following suggests approaches that the social studies teacher can use to this end.

1. Consistently relate the past to the present, and, wherever possible, to a present problem and to the individual's relationship to the problem. He can strive throughout the social studies program for critical consideration of contemporary social and civic problems. By doing so he can help the adolescent develop the skills and concepts needed for civic competence and, at the same time, build standards of socially desirable behavior (tasks 8 and 9).
2. Utilize participation activities as a means of helping the adolescent to identify with his community and his nation, and to gain civic skills. Such activities may include study of the local community and its history through interviews and field trips, participation in community surveys and improvement campaigns of various types, planning and executing get-out-the-vote campaigns at election time, and so on (tasks 4, 9, and 10).
3. Develop techniques of working in groups, including both the use of parliamentary procedure and the skills needed in a successful committee, a discussion group, or other informal group situations (tasks 1, 8, and 9).
4. Utilize social history, in history and in problems courses, to help students gain insight into persisting problems of living. For example, such materials can help young people to see that conflict between generations has been a persistent problem in Western

culture, a conflict that is accentuated by rapid social change (tasks 2, 4, 7, 9, and 10).

5. Employ, as related reading, appropriate fiction dealing with problems and needs of adolescents in our own time and in earlier times (tasks 1 through 10).
6. Make use of biography to show how outstanding men and women of various periods have dealt with various life problems, developed their own potentialities, and worked out their standards of ethics (tasks 1 through 10, especially 10).
7. Utilize current events so as to point up the meaning of these events for young people and to provide opportunities for students to think through their expectations, fears, and hopes about their personal futures (tasks 5 through 10).
8. Stress continuously the conscious use of the skills of critical thinking and problem solving, within a framework of democratic values, and thus help students apply these skills to situations in their everyday lives (tasks 1 through 10, especially 8).
9. Include, in the orientation units commonly taught in seventh- or eighth-grade social studies and in ninth-grade civics, adequate attention to such topics as what it means to grow up, getting along with one's family, and so on. Include, in the senior high school problems course, adequate attention to personal problems and family living units, at a level appropriate to the maturity of the senior high school student (tasks 1, 2, 3, 4, and 7).
10. Stress, throughout the study of history or civics, the development of democratic principles and their application in contemporary society (tasks 1 through 10, especially 8, 9, and 10).

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES AMONG ADOLESCENTS

Among people of any age group there are individual differences in abilities, needs, and interests. Because adolescence is a period of rapid development and change, individual differences among secondary school students may seem especially pronounced as compared with those of an adult group. The chief bases of individual differences are differing patterns of growth and maturation, variations in backgrounds of experience, and differences in abilities and interests.

MATURATION PATTERNS. Secondary school teachers must expect any class in junior or senior high school to include students representing as much as a five-year range in physical and physiological development. Among the pupils in a ninth-grade class, for example, there will be striking differences in height and weight. Probably one-third of the girls will be on the threshold of puberty, others will have reached the menarche, and some will still be little

girls physiologically. Some of the boys will have grown tall and begun the development of secondary sex characteristics, whereas others will be conspicuous by their small size and childish voices. Among members of a senior class in high school, differences in physical maturation are less striking because growth is leveling off in the upper teens and the late maturers are catching up with their peers. Yet the physiological differences are there.

The obvious differences in rate of physical maturation are important in themselves as factors in student behavior. Those at either extreme in rate of growth tend especially to be preoccupied with their own development. Those who lead in maturation may feel self-conscious and inadequate, and those who lag behind are often concerned for their own normalcy. Their preoccupation may interfere with the social adjustments they are called upon by parents and teachers to achieve, and with their academic progress.

Variations in physical maturation are also important to the teacher as a reminder of the different rates of growth in other aspects of the student's development. Maturation of intellectual powers and the working through of problems of social and emotional adjustment—the developmental tasks of adolescence—proceed more slowly with some than with others. Although the various aspects of maturation are interrelated, growth is likely to proceed unevenly with each individual. The girl whose physical growth has brought her near to womanhood may look far more mature than her classmates, but actually be behind some of them in other aspects of her development.

EXPERIENCE BACKGROUNDS. Variations in backgrounds of experience account for many individual differences within a group. Conditions of family life, membership in a particular subcultural group, and social-class origin are three important factors in the student's background.

The quality of family living the adolescent has experienced influences his attitudes toward other people and toward himself, and affects his own standards of behavior. One study shows, for example, that high school students of comparable intelligence and socio-economic background seem to earn about the same grades in school, whether from broken homes or homes with both parents present. Those from broken homes, however, earn fewer "good citizenship" ratings, hold fewer elective offices at school, and are involved more often in disciplinary situations than students living with both their parents.¹ Other investigations suggest that the

¹ H. Reyburn, "Guidance Needs of Students from Broken Homes," *California Journal of Educational Research*, 2 (1951), 22-25.

social climate in the home has much to do with attitudes of children and youth. Thus adolescents from democratic families have fewer problems of adjustment at home and in life outside the home than those from authoritarian families.

The varied origins of the people of the United States have contributed to the development of subcultural groups within the larger American culture. Each individual is affected by the attitudes, interests, and patterns of living accepted by his particular subculture. Patterns of family relationships vary from group to group. The freedom accorded young people within many American families, for example, may be unacceptable to parents who were reared in the more restrictive tradition of many European groups. Attitudes concerning various aspects of living, such as the civic responsibility of the individual or the duty of the individual to his religious group, vary from subculture to subculture. Adolescents bring with them to the classroom their own reactions, both positive and negative, to the values and patterns of living accepted by their cultural group.

The adolescent's socioeconomic background is likely to influence his social attitudes, his vocational aspirations, and the extent and quality of cultural experiences he has had. Studies of social-class differences indicate, for example, that middle-class parents value schooling more highly as a means to future success than do those of lower socioeconomic groups. As a result, students from middle-class homes are in general more highly motivated to succeed in school, both in class and extraclass activities, than are those from lower-class homes. Speech patterns, standards of behavior, and accepted ethical values vary from one socioeconomic group to another. The extent of experiences involving contacts with various aspects of cultural life—books, concerts, travel, and so on—seem to be generally related to social-class background.

Knowing a student's background and understanding its significance is essential for the social studies teacher who wishes to utilize the individual differences of students and satisfy the needs resulting from these differences.

ABILITIES AND INTERESTS. Secondary school students differ, as do people of every age group, in the abilities and interests they bring to bear on their learning tasks. The social studies teacher must recognize that in every class he will encounter a broad range of talents. A heterogeneous group within a grade level will probably include some slow students, a majority of average and above average learners, some that are superior, and perhaps a gifted child or two. Even when some form of homogeneous grouping

has been used, a range of abilities and interests will be present.

Teachers, in considering abilities, probably think first of potential intelligence as reflected by an intelligence quotient. The true meaning of the I. Q., the nearest measure of native intelligence that has been developed, continues to be debated by specialists in psychology and human development. Students who earn a high score on the group intelligence tests commonly used in schools are more likely to do well academically than students who make low scores, although there are exceptions at both ends of the scale. The intelligence quotient bears less relation to abilities of other sorts—mechanical, artistic, leadership, and social adjustment abilities, for example.

Some psychologists emphasize the predictive strengths and weaknesses of the general intelligence test by characterizing it as an academic aptitude test. There is evidence that the widely used intelligence tests have a cultural bias that discriminates in favor of children with urban and middle- or upper-class backgrounds and against those from rural areas, lower socioeconomic groups, and foreign-language-speaking groups. Nevertheless, the intelligence quotient, properly interpreted, is one useful tool in identifying individual differences in ability or general intelligence.

Achievement tests help to measure another dimension of abilities by indicating at what levels an individual performs in various fields. Applied to a group of students they reveal the range of differences within the class as to how much has been learned in what areas—reading, mathematics, science, or social studies, for example. Scores on such tests have meaning, of course, only if students have had opportunities to learn the things that are tested in the various areas. This warning is especially important in interpreting standardized achievement tests in the social studies, a field in which there may be considerable variation from one school to another in the specific content that is emphasized. The social studies teacher will find such tests useful, however, to identify individual differences in familiarity with particular social studies concepts, command of vital study skills, and general background of social studies information.

Interests are often, though not invariably, closely related to abilities. That is, a person seems likely to develop strong interests in fields where he has most success. Interests are also related to the other chief bases of individual differences: rate and stage of maturation, and background of experience. As the boy or girl enters adolescence, interests tend to be many, varied, and focused on things that affect the young adolescent directly. As the youth

moves toward later adolescence, interests become more selective and deeper, and encompass broader aspects of society as well as the persistent personal problems of establishing a family, choosing a vocation, and developing a philosophy of life.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING. Information about individual differences is important for the social studies teacher, but only to the extent that he uses this knowledge to guide learning more effectively. To accomplish this the teacher must study his students, recognize their problems and needs, plan for the range of differences, provide for choice in assignments, and capitalize on the varied talents that he finds in each class.

Studying Students. In learning about his students, the teacher should obtain basic data, such as those concerning chronological age, health and maturation, family background, socioeconomic and cultural background, intelligence quotient, reading level, and scores on social studies and other achievement tests. In most schools such data can be obtained quickly from the student's permanent record card or from the files of the guidance counselor. If it is not available from these sources, the teacher can collect some of it himself, using a questionnaire covering such points as age, height, weight, illnesses within the past year, occupation of parent(s), travel and visits to museums or attendance at concerts within the past year, television programs most often viewed, books and magazines at home, and hobbies. He can supplement such data through observation and by administering achievement tests of the types listed in Buros (see Selected Readings, Chapter 16). A social studies teacher cannot hope to make a case study for each pupil in his classes each year, though he will need to do so for a few with special problems. In a relatively brief time, however, he can assemble basic data that will give a picture of the class as a whole and of each student. With it the teacher can establish a better rapport with students because his picture of them will be based on information rather than on speculation or misleading assumptions concerning them.

The teacher must recognize that individual differences influence problems and needs, and seek to identify the unique needs of individual students. Each individual's pattern of maturation, abilities, and experience combine to make some of the common problems of adolescence particularly difficult for him. Individual needs, then, grow out of individual differences.

Identifying the unique needs of individual students is a complicated process. A first step is to review the basic data about each student, noting unusual conditions of development, background, abilities, or interests. If the child lives in a broken home,

is lagging noticeably in physical development, or is reading far above or below grade level, these facts suggest special needs. Observed behavior in and out of class and performance in class assignments offer further clues.

Administering a problems checklist such as the Mooney Problems Checklist can reveal what the student considers to be his unique problems and needs, if he feels free to mark the list frankly. If a commercially prepared checklist is not available, the teacher, perhaps with the help of students, can construct such a checklist for use with his classes.

Another tool for learning about individual needs is the student autobiography. In some schools such a paper is written as an assignment in an English class, and then placed in the pupil's personnel file where it can be consulted by all teachers. In schools where this practice is not followed, the social studies teacher can assign an autobiographical paper early in the term as a "get acquainted" measure. Such papers are revealing, often as much because of what is not said as because of what is there. They must be studied, of course, against the background of other basic data about the student.

The identification of individual needs can facilitate the work of the social studies teacher in at least two ways. He can select content, materials, and classroom procedures more effectively if he takes student needs into account. Knowledge of individual needs also will give clues for proper handling of relationships with individual students, including effective action to achieve good classroom control. The time spent in studying pupils during the first weeks of the school year can make the difference between spending the rest of the year in merely maintaining "control" or in *teaching* social studies.

Providing for Individual Differences. To become aware of and plan for the range of differences within each class is a first step toward providing for individual differences. The social studies teacher can quickly summarize the data compiled about each student in order to form a picture of the class as a whole. A graph can be constructed in order to reveal at a glance the range and the predominant level of ability within the group as shown by intelligence quotients. Similar graphs can be made to show reading levels, achievement in various social studies skills, and so on. A summary list of special interests and abilities will identify students who may serve the group as "resource persons" in their field of particular interest. It also serves as a guide for special assignments, so that interests can be capitalized on and, in reverse, so that stu-

dents can be encouraged to explore new areas and expand their skills and interests. The student who consistently chooses special projects that can be treated through drawing, for example, needs to widen his horizons. A similar list of special problems and needs will alert the teacher against possible pitfalls of working with the class as a whole, as well as with individuals. Planning a seating arrangement or establishing assigned committees, for example, will be done more effectively with a knowledge of pupils' problems and abilities. The list of special needs suggests ways of helping the boy or girl of superior potential or advanced maturity to make the most of his talents. It also helps to identify the child who requires remedial work.

It is necessary to provide for varied assignments and choices by students in every unit or block of work. No single, uniform plan of work can possibly provide for the range of individual differences to be found in every social studies class. There must, of course, be a definite, coherent framework for the class' study, or learning will be fragmentary and haphazard. But within this framework, the teacher can provide flexibility through alternative reading assignments, student choice of topics for unit projects, and other techniques discussed in Chapters 6, 7, and 8. Not only will needs of individuals and of the group be better served, but the resulting variety in class procedures will enliven the study of social studies.

The teacher will find that it facilitates instruction to recognize and capitalize on the opportunities offered by individual differences, instead of viewing these differences as problems. There is no single recipe for accomplishing this goal. The teacher who achieves it must acquire a point of view, an awareness of students as individuals, and a habit of working from data about them instead of depending on off-the-cuff impressions. The teacher who can develop and implement this understanding is on the road to effective social studies instruction.

FACILITATING THE LEARNING PROCESS

There are many unanswered questions as to how people learn. Nevertheless, there are some generally accepted principles concerning the conditions that facilitate learning. Some of the most significant for social studies teaching are stated here in summary form. The effective social studies teacher keeps these principles in the foreground of his thinking and planning for instruction.

MOTIVATION. The student learns more, with less effort, if he desires to learn and has a purpose for learning that which is taught.

Some students come to secondary school social studies classes already interested or motivated, from past experiences and present needs, to learn some of the facts and skills they will encounter there. Others come with little interest and a negative kind of motivation about social studies work. Few if any arrive with a built-in desire to learn all of the social studies that the teacher hopes to teach. All need the stimulation the teacher can provide to arouse interest, establish purpose, and create the desire to learn. Few students cannot be helped to develop interest and purpose for social studies work, provided the teacher gives appropriate assistance.

Much ink has been used in discussion of motivation that is intrinsic (arising from within as a consequence of felt needs of the learner) and that which is extrinsic (arising from outside stimulations, often pressures). For the social studies teacher this distinction is less important than the realization that extrinsic motivation, if well selected, can support and develop the student's intrinsic motivation.

The most successful methods of motivation are positive, not punitive or superficial. They have meaning to the learner because they tie in with his experiences and needs. Artificial "gadgets" attract momentary attention but arouse no continuing interest. Motivation should never be confused with educational vaudeville. The teacher who points out the reasons or purposes for assignments, if the reasons are valid and comprehensible to the student, does more to motivate the learning of social studies than the one who relies on pseudo humor or on demerits to hold students' attention. The field trip that is used to give purpose to a unit of study is likely to create a more lasting interest and a willingness to invest hard work in seeking answers to significant questions than is the grade that goes on the report card. Successful teachers never forget the importance of positive motivation, interest, or purpose in the learning process.

CLASSROOM CLIMATE. Students learn more, and more easily, if there is a positive classroom climate in which participation is encouraged and achievement is recognized. Many classrooms in the past were managed (and some are still so conducted) on a basis that has been characterized as the "stress and strain" approach to education. Learning of any value was thought, in these classrooms, to be of necessity hard and even painful. Competition, not co-operative learning, was the keynote. Students were continuously on trial, with the teacher as judge, and fear of punishment for failure was the accepted tone of the classroom climate.

In recent years, however, psychologists and educators have come to general agreement that the constructive classroom climate is a "democratic" climate. It is a climate in which teacher and pupils work together toward goals accepted by the group. It is one in which there is a maximum of constructive interaction among members of the group, including the teacher, and opportunity for both cooperative and individual work. It is one in which individual initiative and independence of thought are emphasized. It is also a climate that provides encouragement for the learner, recognition of his successes, and avoidance of the frustration accompanying failure that is inevitable.

This is not to say that all learning is "fun," although even routine aspects can and should have purpose. It is not to say that young people should always be protected against failure. Indeed, they should be faced with failure when they have not invested reasonable effort. Tension, in the sense of excitement, and anxiety, to a normal degree, can be helpful or even necessary to learning. Failure can teach, but only if its causes are comprehensible to and controllable by the learner.

Nor does the desirability of developing a democratic classroom climate suggest that the teacher is to be merely one member of the class. He is the mature leader of the group, and must establish this position for himself. A reasonable degree of formality in relationships with their teachers is expected by most students. Successful teachers have learned that they must set standards of behavior in the first weeks of each school year, and that they can become more relaxed in their procedures after students have understood the limits which they are expected to observe. Beginning teachers will profit by following the same rule.

Nevertheless, a climate in which pupils can work cooperatively, with assurance that success can be achieved with effort, is the goal. It is conducive to learning as measured by retention of information and development of skills. This kind of climate is also important in the formation of many of the attitudes which social studies instruction is expected to develop.

PARTICIPATION. The student learns more, more easily, if he takes an active part in class proceedings. Learning by doing does not always require physical activity. Learning may take place through reading, studying a film, participating in a class discussion or a panel, listening, or writing. Secondary school students need more opportunities than they find in most social studies classrooms, however, for learning through such activities as interviews, field trips, sociodrama, and other overt "doing" situations.

LEARNING GOALS. The student learns more surely and easily when his learning goals are clear. A student may be asked to read the chapter on the colonial period in United States history. Or he may be asked to discover why the American Revolution took place. The difference in the learning that results will probably be considerable. In the first situation the conscientious student reads because the chapter has been assigned and he wishes to do what the teacher asks of him. In the second he has a definite question to answer. Because his purpose in reading the material is clear in his mind, he is more likely to understand and remember what he reads than is the student in the first situation.

The student previously cited may have had more than one purpose in mind as he did his reading. He may have had the goal of improving his rate of reading or expanding his vocabulary, as well as that of gathering information to answer a question. As long as his learning goals were limited to a reasonable number, were clearly defined, and were not in conflict, he could and probably did achieve concurrent learnings.

To set the stage for efficient learning, the social studies teacher will help students to set clear goals, and to work consciously toward more than one goal through a single activity.

LEARNING BY WHOLES. The student learns more, and more easily, if he studies understandable wholes rather than isolated parts. The dates of the Peloponnesian Wars, the names of the Presidents of the United States, or the names of the rivers of North America can be memorized, as nonsense syllables can be memorized; but unless the pupil sees this information within a frame of reference it will have little more significance than the nonsense syllables, and will soon be forgotten. Facts are better remembered when understood in relation to a broader picture.

In applying the principle of learning by wholes, however, the social studies teacher must take into account the maturity and abilities of the student. The "whole" that is comprehensible to the senior in high school may be confusing to an immature seventh-grader because it is too large, with too many complex relationships, for the younger pupil to understand. In the same way, "wholes" for slow learners are smaller and simpler blocks of study than those for gifted students of the same chronological age. What matters is that there be a unity that the student can comprehend, and a framework within which he can place facts and establish relationships among them.

reference to his maturity, abilities, and previous experiences. The social studies teacher who, in working with a typical eighth-grade class, assigns reading pitched at the eleventh-grade level, organizes the year's work into over-large units, and emphasizes rather abstract economic and political concepts will find most of his pupils failing to respond or to learn. It would be equally unprofitable to expect a typical senior high school class to study materials prepared for the seventh-grade level. In the first case many of the students could not, on the basis of their experience and maturity, achieve the learning tasks set for them. In the second, boredom and resentment at "babyish" tasks would be a natural reaction.

Studies of adolescent development and individual differences have not revealed specific social studies experiences that should be assigned to a given school year. They do suggest, however, some directions to be followed from the early through the later secondary school years. These include: from shorter, simpler units of study in the junior high school, to longer, more complex units in the senior high school; from fewer to more numerous sources as the student climbs the grade-level ladder; from higher proportion of concrete content in the junior high school to more abstract concepts in the senior high school; and from higher to lower proportion of direct, highly sensory experiences and from a lower to higher proportion of vicarious learnings as the pupil moves from the seventh grade through the twelfth. These are general guidelines. The teacher must discover anew with each group exactly where his learners are, and plan accordingly.

PLANNING FOR SEQUENCE IN LEARNING. The student learns effectively only when learning experiences are arranged in a sequence that will develop meanings or understandings. The social studies teacher cannot give meanings or understandings to students. Rather, the learner must construct them for himself, for the development of meaning is an active process depending on the learner's experience and the use he makes of it. Since language is the chief vehicle by which ideas and facts are transmitted, the student's ability to interpret verbal symbols affects his development of meanings. Again, his background of experience is a determining factor, for words carry to each person the pictures and ideas that they represent in his experience. To develop meanings, the words that are used must communicate accurate, specific pictures to the learner. If the words call up vague pictures or none at all, the student may be vague in his understanding of the new fact or idea, he may develop false impressions, or he may simply memorize the words without understanding. One of the greatest problems

confronting the social studies teacher is that of knowing when the student understands correctly, when he has a degree of understanding, and when he is resorting to meaningless verbalism.

The key role that experience plays in the development of meanings places demands on the social studies teacher. He must discover what experiences students have had that relate to the fact, idea, or concept he seeks to help them understand. He must provide additional, pertinent experiences. Some of these may be direct, for example, examination of objects and field trips. Films, still pictures, and recordings may be studied. A variety of concrete examples and illustrations should be used, with comparisons and discussion of relationships.

The social studies teacher must bear in mind that students expand or develop meanings not through the repetition of experiences, but by focusing many different experiences upon the development of a given concept or skill. Thus, to develop an understanding of "mass production," the teacher would not, ideally, follow a field trip in which the assembly line in an automobile factory was observed with a film showing an assembly line in an automobile factory. He might follow it with a film showing an assembly line of a different type in another industry, or with pictures illustrating the difference between the assembly line of today and one of the early twentieth century, or with pictures showing how individual, interchangeable parts are produced for an industry.

Meaning is most effectively extended when learning experiences are arranged in psychological sequence. Such an arrangement provides for continuity, working from the known to the unknown and from the simple to the complex. It provides opportunities at appropriate points for review and summary in order to reorganize new experiences with old, and to generalize from them. Such a sequence includes opportunities to use or apply learning to new situations.

The problems of society—economic, political, and social—inevitably involve factors that are not and often cannot be known to students through first-hand experience. The social studies teacher must help young people to use their direct experiences as a basis for enlarging their abilities to learn vicariously through reading, listening, and viewing. To the student who successfully develops meanings and understandings concerning his social world, the complex and the distant can become more comprehensible.

DEVELOPING ATTITUDES. The student develops socially accepted attitudes more fully, and at the same time learns information and skills more effectively, if the teacher gives conscious attention to attitude formation. There is much yet unknown about how at-

titudes are formed. The evidence suggests that school experiences, although they can be an important factor, are not the strongest influence in the development of an individual's attitudes and ideals. Experiences at home, attitudes of parents, and attitudes widely held in the community or society have a potent effect on the attitudes of the growing individual. Despite these facts, the social studies teacher has the obligation to help students form socially constructive attitudes. There is evidence that the growth of social studies understandings and skills is affected by the student's attitudes toward himself, his group, and the material he is expected to learn. Although we do not fully understand the process of attitude formation, we do have important clues about what teachers and schools can do in this area of learning.

A basic factor in attitude formation is personal involvement of the learner. This involvement may take many forms, but it rests on an emotional reaction in each case. It may be direct involvement, occurring because the learner perceives a direct relationship between his own welfare and the object, institution, or idea he is studying. Thus, as he studies the Bill of Rights, concrete examples, such as his right to read any newspaper he chooses or to worship with his own religious group, can help the student to become personally involved.

Again, the student's involvement may come about through identification with another individual who holds and expresses certain attitudes. His attitudes toward the Bill of Rights may be influenced by his feelings toward the teacher who is presenting information about it. If he likes, respects, admires, and identifies with the teacher, and he notes that the teacher values the Bill of Rights as having true importance to himself, the student is likely to share in this attitude. He may dislike the teacher. He may like him but sense that he is indifferent or actively hostile to the principles expressed in the Bill of Rights. In such cases, the student's attitudes toward it may be affected negatively. A learner may read and enjoy a story in which a boy of his own age, with whom he can identify, defends the right of a schoolmate to express unpopular opinions. His attitudes toward the principles of the Bill of Rights may be affected positively by this reading experience. In the same way, involvement may come about through identification with a group which the learner has accepted as his own and in which particular attitudes are expressed.

An attitude may be formed rapidly, as a result of a single, vivid experience, or by adopting it from a person or a group. A pupil's attitude toward labor unions, for example, may be adopted from

his father. Or if the student were involved in violence connected with a strike, this one experience might cause him to form an intense attitude regarding unions. In most cases, however, many specific reactions are integrated to form an attitude. The pupil's attitude toward unions is likely to develop over a period of time as he hears conversations about them, reads about their activities, studies unions in his social studies class, or finds his own family affected by the work of his father's union.

Gaining pertinent information may be a significant factor in formulating or modifying an attitude. Studies indicate that students' attitudes toward such problems as racial discrimination, farm policies, and labor-management conflicts have been influenced by information presented in school. A marked shift in attitude tends to appear immediately after the problem has been studied, followed by a swing back toward the originally held attitude and an eventual stabilization somewhere between the original attitude and the furthest shift. The degree to which a student's attitude will be modified by new information seems to depend on various factors. These include: the level of information already known about the problem; the interest the student develops in the problem; the intensity of the originally held attitude; and the consistency of the general attitudinal pattern of the student. If little is previously known about the problem, study of it is more likely to change attitudes than if the learner already has considerable knowledge about it. If the student's interest is high, the study is more likely to modify his attitudes than if he is indifferent. Attitudes that are strongly held are less likely to be modified by information than those that are less intense. Students who hold generally consistent attitudes, as generally conservative or generally liberal, are less likely to modify an attitude as a result of study than those who have not developed a consistent attitudinal pattern.

The social studies teacher can utilize the available knowledge of attitude development as he guides pupil study. Aware that the quality of his relationships with students is an important force in the building of socially acceptable attitudes, he will strive to establish a friendly rapport based on mutual respect. Realizing that his example is an important factor, he will guide his actions accordingly. Understanding the need for interest and personal involvement on the part of the student, the social studies teacher will select materials and activities to fulfill these needs. Recognizing that the development and modification of attitudes is a continuing process, he will make it a conscious part of his planning throughout the year.

PLANNING FOR TRANSFER OF LEARNING. The student's social studies experiences should be planned to facilitate his application of learnings to new situations. The idea of automatic transfer of training has long been discredited. There is evidence, however, that transfer of learnings from one situation to another can be achieved to a considerable degree provided two procedures are applied in teaching-learning situations. First, the teacher can emphasize the aspects of class study that can be transferred and point out many situations in which these aspects can be used. That is, students can be helped to generalize or make general application of their specific learnings. Second, when a skill or a process has been learned at an adequate level, the teacher can provide new, diverse, and increasingly complex situations in which students may practice it. These situations should contain as many as possible of the elements that would be found in real-life situations where the learning could be applied. Through generalizing that which has been learned and applying it in a variety of lifelike situations, transfer can be facilitated.

Someone has said that in most classrooms much more is taught than is learned, and this is probably true. The social studies teacher can narrow the gap between what he teaches and what students learn by applying the principles discussed in this chapter. Even before he meets a class, the teacher can make plans in the light of available information about the developmental characteristics of his adolescent students. As he gets to know his students, he can adapt both curriculum and procedures to the range of differences he finds in his class. Throughout the school year, the effective social studies teacher will strive to create favorable conditions for learning by developing a positive classroom climate and utilizing methods derived from his knowledge of the psychology of learning.

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Presents findings of Purdue Opinion Polls of thousands of teenagers. Includes summaries of attitudes toward their own problems, their parents, school, religion, ethics, and science. Of particular significance for the social studies teacher is the section on teen-agers' attitudes toward political affairs and basic civil liberties.

ORGANIZING LEARNING EXPERIENCES

The selection and organization of learning experiences for classroom instruction are the overt steps in making the social studies curriculum. Analytically they follow the determination of objectives, the identification of characteristics of the learners and the learning process, and the determination of scope and sequence for the total social studies program. Practically, the social studies teacher is plunged into these steps the instant he begins his plans for a class period, a semester, or a year. He must plan an internal organization for the social studies courses he is teaching and select the materials he will use. He must formulate plans that will implement accepted objectives and will be appropriate for his particular students. He must also fit his plans into the pattern of scope and sequence that has been set up for the social studies program in his school. If none exists, his responsibility is all the greater, for he must envision such a framework for himself.

HORIZONTAL AND VERTICAL ARTICULATION

A major enemy of interest and learning in the classroom is unplanned, routine repetition of materials and experiences. This enemy thrives in those social studies classrooms where teachers fail to coordinate the work with that in other classes which students are taking, have taken, or will take—that is, where they fail to plan for horizontal and vertical articulation in selecting learning experiences.

To achieve horizontal articulation, the social studies teacher must discover what his pupils are studying in other classes, eliminate

duplication, and, where possible and desirable, plan to correlate instruction on the same topics. In some schools, curriculum plans for the various areas are available for study; in others, the teacher must consult informally with his colleagues. He may find, for example, that pupils are scheduled to study in their English class a unit on minority problems, while he has planned a social studies unit on the same topic. At the least, he can confer with the English teacher to reduce duplication; at the best, the two can correlate the work so that student learning about the topic will be broader and deeper. Perhaps students will read novels and short stories about minority problems in their English class and study basic factual material in social studies. Both teachers may stress discussion skills in connection with the unit, with basic instruction given in English and opportunities for application provided in social studies.

Vertical articulation is the practical application of plans for sequence or grade placement of social studies materials. The teacher must know what pupils have studied in earlier social studies courses and what major experiences they will encounter in future school years. To plan for a junior high school United States history class, for example, the teacher should know what aspects of the nation's past pupils studied in the elementary grades and what is emphasized in the senior high school. In some schools he will find a written plan for articulation; he need only consult it and work within its framework. But if a school system has no systematic articulation for the social studies program from one level to the next, the teacher must find out what is being done in other social studies courses that precede and follow his in the program, and plan accordingly. Sometimes he can spend less time on a topic that seems to have been covered fairly thoroughly in earlier school years, and expand another that seems to be neglected.

One approach to improving vertical articulation in the social studies program is illustrated by the samples shown in Tables 3 and 4. Topics, generalizations, skills, and attitudes to be emphasized at each grade level can be charted as demonstrated in these samples, in order to insure cumulative development during successive school years, and to avoid needless repetition or serious omissions. Elementary school grade placements must be taken into account, of course, in charting the secondary program. Through such planning, the teachers in a social studies department can achieve a more balanced social studies program.

Any plan for improving vertical articulation must provide for review, reteaching, and refinement of that which has been presented

in an earlier year. Pupils need to re-examine generalizations at intervals, in the light of new material, and to deepen and refine them in the process. Skills and attitudes must be reinforced if they are not to be forgotten. Diagnostic tests may reveal that pupils need complete reteaching of some skill that has presumably been taught in a lower grade. In short, although a basic plan is needed for articulation, it must be applied flexibly in the light of pupil progress.

INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF COURSES

A decision as to the topics, concepts, skills, and attitudes to be emphasized is essential in planning a year's work, but it does not settle the question of organization. The teacher must choose between a chronological, a topical, or a problems approach, or a combination of these, or still another organization. The teacher of world history, for example, may combine a chronological treatment of the ancient, medieval, and early modern periods with the study of selected topics and geographic areas. The geography teacher may organize his course around regional studies, or patterns of distribution, or around a combination of these and other topics such as international trade and conservation of resources.

Another aspect of internal organization of courses has to do with the way classroom and study activities are structured. The traditional method of organizing activities in social studies classes has been to use the daily recitation or, on a higher level, the discussion lesson. Most adults experienced the daily assign-study-recite form of classroom activity when they were in school. In the past generation or two, however, many social studies teachers have *organized instruction to cover longer segments of time than daily lessons*, and to include large blocks of content. In general, these teachers can be said to employ the "unit approach" as distinguished from the "day-by-day approach." Most social studies educators today agree that the unit approach offers a better opportunity to organize learning experiences effectively than does the older plan. Consequently, it will be treated in detail in this chapter and the next.

UNIT ORGANIZATION

Unit organization has grown out of the theories and practice of educational leaders of the past century. Herbart and the American Herbartians emphasized the development and application of general principles through the study of large topics. Dewey, Kilpatrick, and their followers influenced the concept of unit organiza-

PLANNING THE PROGRAM

TABLE 3

GRADE PLACEMENT OF CONTENT TOPICS

Content Topics	Grade and Subject					
	7 Geography	8 U. S. History	9 Civics	10 World History	11 U. S. History	12 Social Problems
<u>Geographic areas of the world (except U. S.)</u>						
Great Britain & the British Empire	2			1	3	
Canada	1	2			3	
Australia	1					
Latin America	1	2		2	3	
The Far East	1			1	3	
The Middle East	1			1		
Africa	1			1		
Germany	2			1		
France	2			1		
Italy	2			1		
Spain and Portugal	2	3		1		
Eastern Europe	2			1		
The USSR	1			1	2	2
Scandinavian countries	1			2		
<u>U. S. History and Gov't.</u>						
Constitution		2	1		1	2
Local, state government		3	1		3	2
Discovery, exploration etc.		1		3	2	

- Key: 1 - Major treatment, geographic, historical, or political, depending on focus of course
 2 - Secondary treatment, in connection with other topics or as part of a broader unit
 3 - Incidental treatment, exclusive of current events, which will be treated in each year as appropriate

TABLE 4
GRADE PLACEMENT OF SKILLS

Skills in Locating Information	Grade and Subject					
	7 Geography	8 U. S. History	9 Civics	10 World History	11 U. S. History	12 Social Problems
<u>Aids in Books</u>						
(Table of content, index, appendices)	1	2	3	3	3	3
<u>Library Files*</u>	2	2	3	3	3	3
<u>Indexes*</u>						
Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature	1		2	2	3	3
Book Review Digest*					1	2
New York Times Index					1	2
<u>Atlases</u>						
General atlases	1	2		2	3	3
Historical atlases		1		2	3	3
<u>Encyclopedias</u>						
General	2	3	3	3	3	3
Dict. of Am. Biog.		1			2	
Dict. of Am. Hist.		1			2	
Encycl. of Am. Hist.					1	
<u>Yearbooks and Special References</u>						
World Almanac	1	2	3	3	3	3
U. S. Govt. Manual			1		2	3
Current Biography				1	2	3

Key: *Direct teaching done in English classes

1 - Direct teaching, followed by activities requiring use

2 - Review and reteaching, followed by activities requiring use and individual remedial instruction

3 - Activities requiring use, with review as needed

tion through their emphasis on problem-solving and on learning as an active process. In the 1920's, C. H. Morrison's *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* popularized unit organization by systematizing a procedure for developing the unit. His famous five steps—exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation—were to be applied to topics chosen for their comprehensiveness and significance.

SOCIAL STUDIES UNIT. A standard definition of the social studies unit was developed by James A. Michener and Harold M. Long more than twenty years ago in their *The Unit in the Social Studies*: "A social studies unit . . . is an organization of information and activities focused upon the development of some significant understanding, attitude, or appreciation which will modify behavior." This definition was based on a broad survey of educational literature dealing with unit organization. Others have since used different words to define the unit, but most of the characteristics of unit organization that are implied by Michener and Long continue to be generally accepted in theory if not always developed in practice.

The following criteria for evaluating a unit will help to clarify and expand the meaning of the term "social studies unit."

1. An effective unit has unity of purpose; that is, content and activities are chosen and organized to implement selected objectives. These objectives, for there will be more than one, are related and consistent with each other. They usually include understandings or generalizations, skills, and attitudes to be developed.

2. An effective unit presents content in such a way that pupil behavior is modified. This change in pupil behavior may involve either overt activity or more subtle aspects of personality, such as intellectual insight, appreciations, or attitudes.

3. An effective unit is planned in relation to the learners. If the unit is to result in modification of pupil behavior, it must be planned in terms of the maturity, abilities, interests and needs of those who will study it. The teacher must use content that pupils can understand and select activities that they can perform.

4. An effective unit utilizes a variety of materials, procedures, and activities. These must be appropriate to the abilities and maturity of the learners, to the purposes of the unit, and to the nature of the content presented in the unit.

5. An effective unit extends over a considerable block of time. This block may vary from a week or ten days to eight or ten weeks. Its length will depend on such factors as the maturity of the learners, the complexity of the understandings to be developed, and the number of subunits that are used.

MISCONCEPTIONS CONCERNING UNITS. Perhaps the meaning of unit organization will be clearer if some common misconceptions about it are identified and corrected. A unit is not merely a series of daily lessons related to one topic. The unit plan provides a general organization within which the daily plans are made as the unit develops. The teacher plans individual class periods several days in advance and has an over-all calendar for the unit, but these plans are adjusted whenever the rate of progress makes it necessary.

There is no one unit method of teaching. Methods and materials are chosen to fit the topic and goals of the unit and the characteristics of the students. The degree of variety in procedures and the type of activities to be used differ from one unit to another. A ninth-grade unit on "The Work of our City Council" provides many more opportunities for direct experiences than does a tenth-grade unit on "The Rise and Decline of the Roman Empire." On the other hand, there may be more reading materials available on ancient Rome than on the local government, and so more emphasis will be placed on gaining information through reading. Procedures also vary with objectives for each unit. If a primary goal of a unit on "The USSR" is to teach pupils to evaluate sources of information, class activities will differ considerably from those used in a study of "Our Relations with Latin America," where a primary goal is to develop selected map skills.

The maturity of pupils also affects the need for certain types of direct experience and the degree to which procedures must be varied. As pupils grow older and acquire a fuller background of experience, for example, there is less need for such activities as making models. Because of their maturity, eleventh- and twelfth-graders may react unfavorably to activities or review games that add zest to junior high school classes.

Some variety of procedures and activities from one unit to another is important as a stimulus to student interest. This factor reinforces the importance of recognizing that there is no single unit method.

A unit may be taught with or without student committees. Some teachers seem to think that a unit is not a unit unless the work is divided among groups of students. Committees can and should be used in many units, but a constant fare of committee work can be just as tiring as daily recitation or an overdose of oral reports. Committees should be used only when they furnish the most expeditious way of accomplishing class aims. Perhaps a lack of materials or a lack of time makes committee work appropriate for a particular unit of work or a part of a unit. At other times it may

be desirable for all pupils to study the same topics. Frequently a particular job can be done best by an individual who then reports to the class. Class, committee, and individual assignments are all worth while; each should be used when it offers the most effective means of achieving unit objectives.

STEPS IN UNIT TEACHING. Although there is no set pattern for unit teaching, there are three general stages through which most units proceed: the initiation, the development, and the culmination. These stages may merge into each other in practice.

The teacher usually begins with a series of introductory or initiatory activities to arouse interest in the unit topic and help pupils see its relation to previous work and to that which is yet to come in the school year. He provides an overview of the new unit, and helps students set definite purposes for their study. Perhaps he uses a pretest to find out what class members know about the topic, or an attitude scale to discover what attitudes they express concerning it. In short, the initiatory stage is devoted to establishing motivation and purposes for the study of the unit.

The developmental or investigatory phase of the unit is the longest of the three stages. Students collect, evaluate, and organize information concerning the unit topic. Part of the time they may work as a class group, part of the time may be spent on individual or committee assignments which are tailored to the abilities and interests of individual students.

The final stage of the unit consists of a series of culminating activities designed to synthesize class findings. The main ideas are summarized and applied, and pupil progress is evaluated in terms of unit objectives.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BASES FOR THE UNIT APPROACH. The unit approach is justified by what is known about principles of learning and the psychology of individual differences.

Learning by wholes is facilitated by the unit approach. Students begin the unit with an overview of what they are going to study. They can relate each day's work and each activity to this over-all pattern. The unit organization is based on the principle that people learn more easily if they first glimpse the whole, then study the various parts, and finally synthesize their new learning.

The unit approach facilitates the development of motivation and interest. The block of time devoted to a unit enables the teacher to pause as long as is necessary to show why the study is important and what is to be gained from it. Students can share in planning. Having laid their plans, they have time to carry them out and evaluate the results. Under these circumstances they are likely to

see the unit goals more clearly and work toward them with stronger interest. In addition, the block of time set aside for a unit makes possible greater variety in procedures. Many activities which cannot be completed in one or two days must of necessity be excluded from classes organized around independent daily lessons. It would be hard, for example, for the class to plan and carry out a model session of the Senate of the United States or for a committee to prepare a timeline for an important historical period within a single period. Under the unit approach, students select activities early in the unit so that they will have enough time to prepare and present the results to the class.

The unit approach, with its emphasis on varied procedures, enables teachers to provide for individual differences. More capable students need tasks that will challenge their ability; pupils with low verbal ability need a chance to engage in activities that will give them opportunities for success. Constant frustration, whether it be from boredom on the part of the able or from failure on the part of the less capable, often leads to dislike for the subject and to habits of non-application. With the unit approach, the teacher can encourage each student to use materials and select activities that are appropriate to his level of achievement. Each can find the satisfaction and encouragement of success.

Finally, the unit approach facilitates the development of a planned sequence of experiences focused on objectives. It is impossible to achieve the range of social studies objectives—involving skills, attitudes, and understandings—through daily lessons based on reading and discussion alone. Many skills, attitudes, and understandings must be developed through a variety of experiences, each designed to reinforce the other. Retention is greater if the learner uses his new information and practices his skills in a variety of situations. The unit approach, with its provision for flexibility in procedures, enables the teacher to plan for successive applications of selected skills, and for cumulative emphasis upon other objectives.

TYPES OF UNITS

Many educators identify three types of social studies units: the chronological unit, the topical unit, and the problems unit. Each has its distinctive characteristics and its advantages for particular purposes.

CHRONOLOGICAL UNIT. The chronological unit is used in history courses more frequently than the other types. Such a unit may center on an historical period in which crucial changes were taking place. For example, a unit on "The Rise of Jacksonian Democracy"

may be taught in a United States history course. Or a chronological unit may focus upon developments within some dominant culture of the past, as in a unit on "Ancient Greece." Within a history course one chronological unit follows another in time sequence, but with some overlapping. In a unit on "The Civil War" that traces the break between the North and South, pupils may study some developments of the Jacksonian period. In most cases, a unit on "Ancient Rome" includes material on the period prior to the decline of Greek influence. Taken in combination, chronological units cover the major developments in the periods and regions included in the course. Appendix A provides an example of a chronological unit. Many other examples can be found in published curriculum bulletins and courses of study.

TOPICAL UNIT. A topical unit may be used in either a history course or some other social studies offering. It focuses upon one aspect of society. In a history course, such a unit may trace the development of some segment of man's culture, such as religion, aesthetic expression, or governmental institutions from earliest times to the present. Or a historical topical unit may involve study of a more limited topic with a shorter time span. The following unit for a senior high school world history course deals with selected aspects of economic history, emphasizing the effects of the industrial revolution and modern technology.

The Economic World in Which We Live ¹

- A. How does our living standard compare with that of other peoples of the world?
- B. How did modern nations improve their living standards?
- C. What problems have been caused by the industrial, agricultural and scientific revolutions?
- D. What attempts have been made to solve the problems of our economic world?
- E. What are the important changes taking place at the present time?

The topical unit found in most non-history courses differs considerably from the historical unit in that it is focused more heavily on the present, lacking the time depth of this historical unit. It does not ignore history, but draws in only that history which clearly helps to explain the present situation. The area study outlined in brief on page 77 illustrates one kind of topical unit.

Another kind of topical unit draws still less upon historical material. This unit is focused on an aspect of contemporary affairs, and considers problems and policies related to it. The outline on page 77 for a study of international trade furnishes an illustration.

¹ From *Resource Units in World History*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 12, 1958-59 Series (New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1959).

**The USSR: How Can We Meet the Challenge to Our
Democratic Institutions and Our Economic System? ²**

- I. The United States cannot afford to ignore the USSR
- II. Knowledge of the country is important to an understanding of the USSR
- III. Present-day Soviet policies, both foreign and domestic, are to a large measure an outgrowth of Russia's history
- IV. The USSR has evolved into a totalitarian form of government
- V. The present-day Soviet government owns or controls all the major producing and distributing agencies in the nation
- VI. The Russians have made distinct cultural contributions to western civilization
- VII. The relations of the USSR with other countries present one of the major problems of our times
- VIII. How can we meet the Soviet challenge to our democratic institutions and our economic system?

You and International Trade ³

- I. International trade affects you in your everyday life
- II. We could exist without international trade, but our standard of living would be lowered
- III. International trade transactions are more complicated than those within a country, but are of the same basic nature
- IV. We can adopt and have adopted some policies which restrict trade and make the country more self-sufficient
- V. There are three approaches to the problem of promoting international trade
- VI. What policies should the United States favor?
- VII. How can you as an individual help affect the course of world trade?

PROBLEMS UNIT. The three distinguishing characteristics of the problems unit are suggested by its name. It is a unit of study that poses a problem that is real to the students, perhaps because they feel they are personally affected by it, or because their views about it are challenged. Second, the problems unit poses alternative courses of action for dealing with an unsolved problem. Usually this means that a contemporary problem is involved, either a personal or a social problem, although some questions of historical interpretation may be so treated. Finally, the problems unit is one that pupils study through application of the problem-solving method. That is, the problem is recognized and defined; tentative hypotheses concerning the solution are developed; relevant data are collected,

² From *A Guide for Instruction in the Social Studies*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 17 (St. Paul, Minnesota: State of Minnesota Department of Education, 1955).

³ *You and International Trade*, You and Economic Issues Series of Resource Units, Unit 2. (Minneapolis: Economic Education Institute, College of Education, University of Minnesota, 1952).

evaluated, and organized; and conclusions are drawn, tested, and applied. (See Chapter 13 for discussion of the use of the problem-solving method and the teaching of critical thinking skills.) The content that is selected and the organization that is used in such a unit must facilitate the use of the problem-solving method, but neither of these factors is a distinguishing characteristic of the problems unit.

Many topical units use content and organization that are appropriate to a problems unit. The topical units on the USSR and on international trade, for which summary outlines are given above, could be transformed into problems units. In each of these, live and contemporary questions are raised, and the basis for developing alternative courses of action is suggested. But a problems unit is more than a topical unit that raises questions. The units on the USSR and international trade will become problems units only if pupils understand and feel their own involvement in the issues that are raised, and consciously use problem-solving techniques in studying these issues.

ADVANTAGES OF CHRONOLOGICAL, TOPICAL, AND PROBLEMS UNITS. The arguments in favor of using chronological units in the study of history stress the logical approach thus provided and the ease of finding appropriate materials. The chronological organization, it is argued, facilitates the development of a time sense. Students may be confused by a topical arrangement which repeatedly forces them to jump back and forth from the present to the past to the present again. Chronological units lend themselves to a narrative or adventure approach which appeals to young people, particularly those of junior high school age. Some of the best non-text materials, such as biographies and novels, fit easily into a chronological organization. Topical history, on the other hand, is more analytical, and enrichment materials are not so available for the topical study of history as for historical periods.

The chronological organization facilitates an emphasis on relationships among social, economic, and political aspects of a society's history, thus avoiding an oversimplified picture of cause-effect relationships in any one area such as political development. Students studying topical units may not develop an understanding of the multiple causation of most historical events. The chronological organization, it is argued, seems logical to students and is easier for them to follow. Chronological units are relatively easy for the teacher to prepare and teach because most teachers have studied chronological history courses in college and because most secondary school history textbooks are organized chronologically.

Those who favor the use of topical units in teaching history argue that this organization is often more functional than that based on chronology. In a course that is organized chronologically there may be a tendency to linger on the earlier units, with a resultant race through those dealing with more recent and perhaps more significant periods. Each topical unit, on the other hand, brings the study to the present day. Basic topics can be treated first, insuring adequate time for thorough study through enrichment reading and other activities that deepen pupil understanding and develop important skills.

It is argued that pupils can more easily see how the present grew out of the past through a topical study of history than through a series of chronological units. This contributes to a deeper, more permanent interest in the study of history and of present-day society. The range of material that must be included in chronological units *may interfere with student identification of cause-effect relationships in particular aspects of the culture.* For example, a student is likely to understand factors in economic change more clearly if he studies a topical unit focused on economic developments than if his consideration of economic change must be picked up anew in each chronological unit.

Finally, when they study topical units, pupils are likely to have experience in locating and organizing information for themselves instead of depending on the textbook.

Those who favor the problems unit above topical and chronological units emphasize the importance of teaching problem-solving skills and critical thinking. Such skills, they argue, are developed only through repeated use. Students who study problem units understand and retain factual content as well as or better than students who study chronological or topical units, it is urged, provided the problems units are taught effectively.

Arguments against the problems unit are usually directed against its exclusive use rather than against this type of unit as such. Many educators have reservations about complete reliance on problems units, because the problems approach cannot be applied to all the understandings a young citizen should develop about his society. For example, "How Congress Passes Laws," or "The Development of Our Constitution and Constitutional Principles" are clearly topics about which citizens need information, but it may be more effective for some classes to study them as topical or chronological units than to attempt to place them in a problems context. Again, some major problem areas that should be studied, such as international trade, may be so complex or so far removed

from the immediate concerns of a group of pupils that it would be difficult to present these areas through the problems approach.

Few systematic efforts have been made to evaluate the relative effectiveness of the chronological, topical, and problems approaches to the organization of social studies instruction. The most comprehensive study that has been made is the Stanford Social Education Investigation, conducted in the early 1940's. This study involved a comparison of the problems approach with the topical approach at the twelfth-grade level, and with the chronological approach in eleventh-grade United States history classes.

The results of the study of twelfth-grade classes indicated the superiority of the problems approach over the topical in bringing student growth in critical thinking, work habits and study skills, knowledge of current affairs, development of a liberal, consistent point of view, and interest in school activities. Because of inadequate data, the twelfth-grade groups using the problems and the topical approaches could not be compared on their growth in knowledge and understanding of the generalizations that had been selected for this level, but the groups using the problems approach did make significant gains.

The evidence concerning the relative effectiveness of the problems and the chronological approach in eleventh-grade history classes was less clear. There was little gain by students in most aspects of critical thinking, whether they were using the problems or the chronological approach. Groups using the chronological approach made greater gains in knowledge of current affairs and knowledge of United States history than did those in groups using the problems approach. The latter groups made greater gains in growth toward a liberal, consistent point of view and in interest in school activities than did those using the chronological approach. On the basis of the evidence the conclusion was that while the maturity of the students and the nature of the content were factors in successful use of the problems approach, the teacher's competence was more important.

Six experiments with "reflective teaching," in which elements of the problems approach were utilized, are reported by Bayles (see Selected Readings). The results of these studies indicate that on conventional standardized examinations covering social studies content, ". . . students taught reflectively do better—a great deal better—than students who are taught conventionally. . . ." There was evidence that the students involved in these studies made considerable progress in the skills of identifying problems and applying the problem-solving process to them. Bayles also cites evidence

to show that a teacher can expect greater and greater gains for the problems approach as compared with conventional units as he becomes more experienced in teaching problems units.

Much more research is needed concerning the relative usefulness of chronological, topical, and problems units, and the factors that determine the effective development of each. In the light of existing evidence, however, it seems clear that each of these kinds of units has a place in the social studies curriculum. In making his selection among them, the teacher should consider problems of vertical articulation, the ability and maturity of pupils, and the scope of the course. United States history, for example, might be taught chronologically in the junior high school and through a topical or problems approach, or a combination of the two, in the senior high school. Or a twelfth-grade teacher whose students have had little experience with problem-solving may rely chiefly on topical units, but introduce a few problems units. For many classes, a course in which more than one type of unit is used during the year may bring the greatest gains in learning.

Units, if planned and taught with skill, offer many advantages over day-by-day organization of instruction. The unit provides pupils with an overview to which they can relate each day's work. The long block of time used in unit teaching makes possible teacher-pupil planning and the variety of activities that is so important for meeting the needs of individual students, stimulating interest, and developing understandings and skills. Chronological, topical, and problems units all have their unique values. In the final analysis, however, it is the effectiveness of the teacher's planning and instruction rather than the use of a particular type of unit organization that determines the quality of learning.

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PLANNING AND TEACHING A UNIT

Planning is basic to effective teaching. Although an experienced instructor needs to spend less time in planning than does an inexperienced teacher, neither one can guide learning efficiently without adequate preplanning. The teacher must focus all of his knowledge of subject matter, educational psychology, educational techniques, and instructional materials upon achieving school objectives as he plans and directs classroom study. His knowledge is of little value unless he can apply it at opportune moments during the development of a unit of work.

FACTORS IN PREPLANNING

The nature and degree of preplanning needed for effective teaching varies with the type of unit, the amount of teacher-pupil planning to be used, available materials, and available planning aids.

Chronological, topical, and problems units tend to require different amounts of time spent in preplanning. If a unit is to follow the organization of an available textbook, the teacher has a relatively easy task of selecting and organizing content. Since most history textbooks are organized chronologically, the teacher can get considerable help in planning a chronological unit. The same kind of help is usually available for topical units in civics, geography, or American problems courses. The teacher's task is far more difficult when the unit cuts across conventional textbook organization, as is likely to be the case with most problems units and many topical history units.

The preplanning that is needed depends in part upon the degree to which students are invited to share responsibility for planning. Contrary to uninformed expectations, a unit developed through

teacher-pupil planning generally requires even more thorough preparation on the part of the teacher than does one in which little cooperative planning is used. (See Chapter 7 for a discussion of teacher-pupil planning.)

Preplanning is affected by the amount and nature of available learning materials. If textbook and enrichment materials are scarce or poor in quality, the teacher must spend time devising materials and procedures to make the unit topic meaningful and interesting, or search for more materials, or do both.

Finally, the nature of preplanning is affected by the availability of planning aids. Perhaps the teacher has a variety of textbooks and textbook manuals containing suggestions for activities and materials. The school librarian may have a useful bibliography dealing with the unit topic. Or the teacher may be able to find resource units that he can adapt to his own purposes.

There are three kinds of unit plans: resource units, teaching units, and student units or study guides. As the name implies, the resource unit is designed as a resource upon which the teacher may draw in setting up a unit for a particular class. Because it is built to help teachers in different situations, it includes many more suggestions than could be followed in any one class. The teacher selects, modifies, and adds to the ideas in the resource unit as he considers community goals and resources, over-all school objectives, objectives of his particular course, and the students in the class. Resource units differ in form but usually include suggestions on objectives, possible content, suggested activities, and useful materials. Frequently they suggest evaluation measures. Appendix A furnishes an example of a resource unit.

The teaching unit is formulated by the teacher for a particular class. It includes all of the parts of a resource unit, but is more selective. It is focused on specific objectives and is limited by materials available and class time.

The student unit is the pupils' guide for studying the unit topic. It may be developed by the teacher, or through teacher-pupil planning. Such a plan usually includes a study outline or questions to be investigated, suggested activities, and references. It may also include worksheets of various kinds, and an indication of how students will be graded on the unit.

Resource units on a variety of social studies topics have been published by the National Council for the Social Studies and by other professional organizations. A selected list of such units is given at the end of this chapter. These can be purchased by individual teachers or by a school for the files of the social studies

department. Other resource units can be found in state and city curriculum bulletins and courses of study. These are usually available to teachers in the state or city where the units were published, and are often available for purchase by teachers of other regions. Curriculum laboratories in colleges and public school systems usually maintain a file of resource units that can be consulted by any teacher.

The social studies teacher will save time if he builds his own collection of unit plans, especially of resource units. Many begin to do so in college, during their study of teaching methods. Alert teachers continue to collect unit plans by purchasing new ones that are published and by exchanging plans with other social studies teachers.

DEVELOPING RESOURCE UNITS

If no resource unit is available for a particular topic, a teacher or group of teachers can develop one. By working together, teachers can divide the work involved and are likely to make a better, fuller unit than any one person could make. If the teacher must work alone, however, he will find it profitable to develop resource units whenever he can do so. Usually, when he is planning for a particular class or as he teaches a unit, he thinks of more activities than he can use. If he writes them down in a resource unit, he saves time another year and has a variety of suggestions from which to choose.

There are several acceptable forms for a resource unit. One pattern is shown in Appendix A. Another is to list the objectives, main topics, procedures and activities, materials, and evaluation suggestions (including test items) on cards, to be filed away by unit topic. This system has the advantage that new materials can be added to the file easily. A unit may also be developed on large sheets of paper, with parallel columns for objectives, content, activities, materials, and evaluation procedures. By putting these categories opposite each other on the page, the teacher can clarify relationships between all parts of the unit and the objectives.

When the teacher has determined the topic of his resource unit, he must become thoroughly acquainted with the subject matter related to it. He must also discover how the topic is treated in available textbooks and other reading materials. Only then is he ready to begin writing the resource unit.

STATING OBJECTIVES. The first step is to define the objectives that would be appropriate for the unit topic. Since a resource

unit is broader in scope than the teaching unit for a particular class, it will include more objectives than any teaching unit drawn from it. Those that are listed should be peculiarly fitted to the unit topic, as well as consistent with the objectives of the course and the total social studies program. They should be sufficiently definite so that progress toward their achievement can be measured. In most resource units, objectives are classified as understandings or generalizations, attitudes or values and skills or abilities.

The understandings or generalizations that are selected as objectives should be stated as generalizations rather than as facts to be known. To list as an objective "the causes of the Civil War" is not nearly so helpful in selecting content and procedures as to state that "The Civil War was a result of complex economic, social, and political pressures, not of any single cause." The second statement will remind the teacher not only of the many different factors that combined to bring the Civil War, but also of the opportunity to use this material to develop a broader social studies generalization, that "Most social problems are the result of multiple causation."

In stating objectives, attitudes should be clearly distinguished from understandings. The latter are intellectual, while the former have emotional overtones. Sometimes an understanding is mistakenly listed as an attitude, for example, "An appreciation of the fact that war is destructive of human life and property" or "The belief that international trade affects the lives of everyone in the United States." Such statements may be associated with attitudes toward war or international trade, but they are factual in nature and are not necessarily accompanied by attitudes. The relationship between attitudes and understandings must be remembered, however. While attitudes do not develop solely out of intellectual understanding, they must rest on a factual foundation if they are not to represent mere prejudice or be subject to violent fluctuations. Thus, objectives for a resource unit on "Civil Liberties" might include the generalization, "Free speech and free press are essential to the democratic process," as well as the attitude, "A desire to preserve free speech and a free press in this country even at some personal sacrifice."

It is especially important that skills objectives be stated specifically. The objective of developing "skill in locating information" is too broad to provide guidance for selecting activities and materials. No student can be taught all the techniques for locating information in one unit; he can be taught to use the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, or *The Dictionary of American History*. If skills objectives are stated only at a general level, the teacher

is likely to assume that pupils will achieve the objectives without doing much to help them do so. If he specifies the skill in more detail, he has a better idea of how he can teach it and of how to evaluate pupil progress in using this aspect of it.

DEVELOPING THE STATEMENT OF CONTENT. All subject-matter content suggested in the resource unit should be related to one of the objectives that has been selected, as well as to the over-all topic. The statement of content can be worked out in one of several forms. An outline, either in questions, sentences, or topics, may be used. Or the statement of content may be a summary in paragraph form. It is desirable to begin the statement of content with a section stating the importance of the unit topic, then develop the content that is to be used, and end with a logical summary. Such a statement facilitates the making of the teaching unit later.

LISTING TEACHING PROCEDURES. In making a resource unit, teaching procedures are usually grouped under the three general stages through which a unit of study progresses—the introduction or initiation, the development or investigation, and the culmination or summarization.

Initiatory procedures should accomplish several ends. They should relate the unit topic to the broad scope of the year's work, provide an overview of the unit itself, and arouse student interest in it. They should explore student knowledge and attitudes about the unit topic. If teacher-pupil planning is to be involved in the unit, it will probably begin during the introductory phase.

To achieve these several ends, the teacher may need to devote several days to introducing the unit and use a number of procedures. To provide for variety in approach and to use the most effective devices for introducing a particular topic, he will need to use different procedures from one unit to the next. The resource unit should therefore contain a wealth of suggestions for initiating procedures so that the teacher, each year, can find some that are useful for his particular situation.

The main body of suggested activities for a unit are grouped under developmental procedures. These are the activities engaged in during the investigative stage of the unit when pupils collect, evaluate, organize, and present information related to the unit topic. Some activities must relate specifically to developing generalizations, others to building the attitudes and skills selected as unit outcomes. Suggestions should also be made for diagnostic exercises and for continuing evaluation of individual and group progress. The list of developmental procedures should include many types of activities so that pupils will have considerable choice.

It should also include activities of varying difficulty to provide for slower, average, and gifted students. Finally, there should be activities to provide common experiences for the entire class, some for small groups and individuals.

The list of unit procedures concludes with suggestions for culminating the unit. These should include several kinds of activities in order to provide for a summary of the unit, application by students of information and skills gained from the unit study, evaluation of pupil progress, and a bridge to later units of study.

When the teacher has completed a tentative listing of procedures, he should analyze it in terms of provision for implementing the stated objectives, for a range of difficulty, and for variety and balance in types of activities. If there are no procedures that are related to a particular objective, if there are few easy or few difficult activities, or if there are many oral activities but few written ones, these gaps should be filled. The teacher may use a master checklist of social studies activities, such as that given in Appendix B, to get suggestions that he can adapt to his particular unit plan.

LISTING MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION. An important section of a resource unit is a list of instructional materials that can be used to implement the stated objectives and procedures. The list may be organized by type, demonstrated in Appendix A, or by main topics in the statement of content. In either case, the list will be more helpful if items are annotated.

LISTING EVALUATION PROCEDURES. The final section of the resource unit is devoted to evaluation procedures. These should be planned so that there is provision for evaluating progress toward each objective of the unit. The suggested procedures may include test items that will measure student gains in information, understanding of generalizations, and control of skills. They should also include other kinds of techniques, such as those described in Chapter 16, for evaluating pupil growth in understandings, attitudes, and skills and abilities.

TEACHING A SOCIAL STUDIES UNIT

The process of planning and teaching a social studies unit can be described through the following account, which illustrates how a unit on the Civil War and Reconstruction was developed with a heterogeneous group in an eleventh-grade United States history course. It also indicates how a resource unit (see Appendix A) may be utilized by the social studies teacher. This chronological unit was preceded by a sequence of other chronological units and

was to be followed by a series of topical units. The class involved was not untypical of eleventh-grade classes throughout the nation.

PREPLANNING THE UNIT. As a basis for preplanning the unit of work, Mr. Brown reviewed the characteristics of the 34 students in his class, and pertinent facts about their work thus far during the year. He knew he must plan for many different levels of ability, since the range of intelligence quotients was from 84 to 145, with a median of 108. Reading levels, obtained from a silent reading test given to all juniors, ranged from Grade 7 to Grade 13, the highest level indicated on the test that was given.

Mr. Brown recalled that the results of a questionnaire that he had administered early in the year indicated that many of the pupils did not like history, that they found it less interesting than other school subjects. He had attempted to change this attitude by introducing a variety of readings, films, and other materials for each unit of study. However, there was still need to counteract residual negative attitudes among some students. He believed that the wealth of materials on the Civil War period could be capitalized on to develop greater interest in the field of history. These materials could also be used to help students improve their ability to evaluate sources of information, a skill which had received some attention in earlier units of the year. Mr. Brown remembered, too, the tendency of many of the students to believe that certain crises in the national history could have been avoided if only the leaders of the time had adopted a particular course of action. He felt that this unit would be a good one in which to try to develop a skepticism of easy solutions for complicated problems.

A review of progress made by students in previous units helped him decide upon other skills that needed emphasis in this unit. Diagnostic test scores showed that members of the class had a fairly good grasp of the sequence of the major periods of United States history, but that they needed to learn selected key dates more thoroughly and to relate other events to them. Recent units had stressed note-taking, adjusting rate and method to the purpose of reading, and the skills needed in presenting oral reports. Since emphasis had been given to historical geography during the study of westward expansion, it did not seem imperative to stress map-reading skills in this unit.

With these points in mind, Mr. Brown constructed his teaching unit. He began by checking through the suggested objectives given in the resource unit. After some thought, he decided to stress all of the generalizations and attitudes listed in the resource unit. He omitted skills number 2, 3, 4, and 5 in order to focus major attention

on the ones needing most attention. During the unit there would be opportunities to use these other skills which had been emphasized in past units. Mr. Brown finally identified the following objectives:

Understandings

1. There was no single cause of the Civil War. The war was a result of complex economic, social, and political pressures.
2. Political parties attempt to compromise differences among sections of the country.
3. The supremacy of the national government was established in a long, costly war.
4. Periods of crisis sharply test political leadership and a constitutional form of government.
5. The influence of cultural continuity makes it difficult to impose abrupt changes in men's institutions.
6. Severe treatment of a defeated people tends to arouse bitter and lasting feelings.
7. There are no quick, easy solutions to complex social problems.

Attitudes and Habits

1. An interest in history and historical materials
2. A desire to understand points of view of others
3. Skepticism of single-factor explanations of complex events, and of oversimplified proposals for solving complex problems
4. The habit of evaluating sources of information

Skills and Abilities

1. Evaluating sources of information to detect biases and determine competency of witnesses who have reported events
2. Using pivotal dates to understand time relationships among events

Mr. Brown's objectives served as his guide in formulating a statement of content and a list of activities to be used in teaching the unit. He decided to use much of the outline of content as it appeared in the resource unit. However, he planned to minimize military history (Part III of the outline) because it had been emphasized in the seventh-grade American history course. He also planned to omit all but brief references to problems of race relations today because the class would study a unit on minority groups later in the year.

Next, Mr. Brown went through the procedures and activities suggested in the resource unit, marking those he was considering for use. Making his list of objectives into a checklist, he indicated beside each one the number of each selected activity that would contribute to the attainment of the objective. For example, he selected two activities (18 and 83) to use in developing skill number 1 with the entire class, and decided to suggest activities

58, 59, 71, and 84 to give some students an opportunity for additional practice with this skill. Mr. Brown selected other activities to be carried out by the entire class (5, 9, 11, 50, 66, 78, 79, 81, and 95), and he added more of his own. Other activities from the resource unit were placed on a list of suggested activities for individual or committee work, from which each student would choose at least one outside project. Mr. Brown consulted the section of the resource unit that is devoted to materials. He selected references needed for the various activities he was planning to use, checking on their availability in the school and town libraries, and adding others that he found there. He gave particular attention to assembling a list of biographies, fiction, and pictorial histories, for he hoped that many students would choose to read one of these books as their special assignment. He also made arrangements to obtain the film on "Johnson and Reconstruction" that he had used in previous years.

When content, activities, and learning materials had been selected tentatively and checked against unit objectives, Mr. Brown considered whether his plan would provide suitable assignments for the slower and brighter pupils as well as for those in the middle range of ability. He also examined the list for balance between the oral, written, and other types of activities. He decided to add several projects to the list to give it better balance.

As another part of his preplanning, Mr. Brown laid out a tentative schedule for the unit, using a calendar form. Having decided that he could spend four weeks on the unit, he felt that he could reserve the first two days to introduce the unit. He placed his introductory activities on the schedule and then added the full class assignments, exercises, and discussions that he had decided to use in the investigative stages of the unit. He also scheduled the final summarizing and evaluation activities at the end of the block of time. Since students were to select individual projects, some of which would be reported to the class, he had to wait to complete the schedule until after the unit was launched. He knew, too, that he might have to modify it as the unit developed.

Mr. Brown considered how he would handle current affairs during the unit. Finally he scheduled most of a class period immediately after the summarizing discussion on the causes of the war, the midpoint for the unit. He planned to reserve several days for intensive current affairs study following the completion of the unit. During the course of the unit students would be expected to read either a current news magazine, a daily newspaper, or a classroom current events paper in order to keep abreast of important news.

Next, Mr. Brown developed the pupil study guide, portions of which are presented below. He rephrased the major points in his outline of content to develop the study questions. Suggested projects for individual and committee work were grouped according to type and references were suggested for each. He also included a bibliography and a general statement of the time allotted to the unit, including the due date for written reports and the date of the unit test.

EXCERPTS FROM
STUDY GUIDE FOR UNIT ON CIVIL WAR AND
RECONSTRUCTION

I. Study Questions

- A. What caused the Civil War?
 - What role did differences over slavery play?
 - What economic differences were there?
 - What political issues divided the country?
- B. Why did the Union forces win the war?
 - How did broad military strategy of the opponents differ?
 - What nonmilitary problems did each side face?
 - How did each meet these problems?
 - What strengths and weaknesses did each side have?
- C. How did war challenge a constitutional form of government?
 - How did Lincoln increase the power of the presidency?
 - What effects did the war have on civil liberties?
- D. How did the country solve the problems remaining after the war?
 - What problems faced the country?
 - What proposals were made to solve them?
 - What measures were finally taken?
 - Why did these measures lead to new problems?

II. Individual and Committee Assignments (choose at least one).¹

A. Written activities:

1. A written report on one of the books in the bibliography
2. A report tracing the development and unveiling of one of the Lincoln myths, such as the Ann Rutledge story or the characterization of Mary Todd Lincoln. (See Donald, *Lincoln Reconsidered*; Randall, *I, Mary*; Angle, *Lincoln Reader*; Randall, *Lincoln the President*.)

B. Oral activities:

1. Oral report on the effects of the blockade.
 - Some people have said that the blockade was the key to victory. Investigate its effect in reducing Southern military supplies and supplies to the Confederate home front as well as its effect on diplomatic relations with England. (See Coch-

¹ Only a few examples can be included, because of space limitations.

ran, *Blockade Runners of the Confederacy*; Commager, *The Blue and the Gray*.)

2. Symposium—The Election of 1860: Provoker of the Civil War? Include discussion of the following points: Who were the candidates and what were their platforms? Why did the Democratic party split? How was the campaign waged (promises, slogans, cartoons, accusations)? Why did Lincoln win? What groups supported him? (Provide a geographical analysis of the vote.) What was the popular vote? the electoral vote? Why were many Southerners so unwilling to accept Lincoln as President? (See Lorant, *The Presidency*; Williams, *A Rail Splitter for President*.)

C. Drawing activities:

1. A series of cartoons representing different viewpoints on some important event, such as the Compromise of 1850, the Dred Scott decision, the impeachment of Johnson. (See text accounts.)
2. A map showing the location of areas of large plantations, sites of Southern industry, and districts where cotton, tobacco, and rice were grown in the South prior to the war. Be prepared to discuss the relationships among the things shown on these maps and the attitude of different sections toward secession. (See text accounts and use atlases by Adams and the Lords.)
3. A chart comparing American casualties in the Revolution, the War of 1812, the Civil War, World War I, and World War II. Be prepared to tell the class why the Civil War casualties were so high. (See text accounts, *World Almanac*, and *Historical Statistics*.)

III. Bibliography. (Not included because of lack of space.)

- IV. Time allotment for unit: 4 weeks; individual projects due two days before the unit test, unless scheduled for class presentation at another time. Unit test on last day of unit.

With the over-all plan of the unit formulated, Mr. Brown decided on general evaluation procedures for checking student progress during the development of the unit and at the end. From his file of diagnostic exercises on time concepts, he selected one on the use of key dates to adapt for use as a teaching exercise during the early stages of the unit. Others would be modified for use in the unit test. To evaluate oral presentations during the unit, he would use a checklist that he had developed with the class earlier in the year. He decided to make anecdotal records of students' comments concerning the process of finding solutions for complex problems. Although final plans for the unit test could not be made until later

in the unit, Mr. Brown skimmed through his file of questions to remind himself of what was available so that he would not duplicate material as he constructed new items from day to day. He also decided to develop, for the final test, an item on evaluating sources of information. Finally, Mr. Brown determined how the various assignments, including the individual projects, would be weighted toward the unit grade.

As a last step before beginning the unit, Mr. Brown decided to prepare a bulletin board display such as that mentioned in procedure # 1 in the resource unit. To emphasize the effects of the Civil War on the present day, he posted maps showing the results of recent presidential elections and mounted them under the caption: "Why the Solid South?"

This comprehensive preplanning is not so formidable as it may seem to readers who have not had experience with it, for the teacher carries out the various aspects of preplanning concurrently. He draws on resource units, suggested procedures, and test items available to him in published form or in his own files. Mr. Brown began the planning soon after the previous unit was launched, and as soon as this unit on the Civil War was well under way, he began preplanning for the one that was to follow. His daily planning during the four weeks required relatively little time, for it consisted largely of expanding and modifying appropriate parts of the overall unit plan. The total planning time for unit teaching is not much greater than that required for adequately planned day-to-day procedures, but the time is used differently.

INITIATING THE UNIT. On the first day of the new unit of work, Mr. Brown began by directing the attention of students to the bulletin board display and the significance of the unit topic. He then gave pupils three minutes to write a brief answer to the question: Why, do you think, did the Civil War occur? One student was asked to read his answer aloud, and the causes he mentioned were listed on the blackboard. The other students were asked how many of them had mentioned each of these causes, and the responses were tabulated. Students who had mentioned additional causes read their statements aloud, and their reasons for the coming of the war were added to the list. It became apparent that most students thought slavery was the chief cause; indeed it was the only cause mentioned by many of them.

The teacher collected the written statements for later use, and then remarked that historians who had studied the period carefully had reached varying conclusions about the causes of the war. He read to the class a number of short quotations from historical

interpretations, each presenting a different viewpoint. In the discussion that followed, several students expressed surprise that historians could not agree or that there was any doubt about slavery being the chief cause of the war. Others, however, recalled that many Southerners had opposed slavery in an earlier period and that some of the earlier conflicts between North and South had not involved slavery directly. As the class period closed, students were given the assignment of listing the kinds of information they would need to arrive at a reasoned conclusion about the causes of the Civil War.

When the class met the following day, Mr. Brown suggested that it would be helpful for students if they began their study with a general time framework for the period in mind. He drew a time line on the chalkboard, showing on it the period from 1789 to the present. As students identified each one, he wrote in the key dates of 1789, 1812, 1820, 1861-65, 1876, 1898, 1914-18, and 1939-45, and the events for which they stood. (These had been introduced as key dates early in the year.) Then he marked on the time line the period of rising sectional conflict that preceded the Civil War and the period of reconstruction after the war. Two students volunteered to prepare a wall-length time line on wrapping paper for the period covered during the course of the unit. They would put on the time line those events chosen by the class as a whole.

The class then turned to a consideration of the questions students had been asked to formulate about the causes of the war. Such points as these were listed on the chalkboard as worth investigating:

1. How many of the Southerners owned slaves? How many of them favored slavery? Was slavery more economical than free labor would have been? How many Southerners opposed slavery?
2. Were a majority of Northerners and Westerners abolitionists? What did Lincoln think of slavery?
3. Were there other important issues that continued to cause conflict between the North and the South after 1836?
4. What position did Western leaders take about conflicts between North and South?

As the discussion developed, class interest rose. When a student began to express heated views about one of his own questions, the teacher pointed out the need for more factual information in order to arrive at any answers. He distributed the unit study guide, and the class noted that the question of what caused the Civil War was the first of four major questions that were to be studied in the unit. It was agreed that students would copy the questions

they had developed and use them to supplement the first part of the study guide.

As an assignment for the next class meeting, students were told to read through the study guide's list of suggested individual and committee activities. They were also to select a textbook from the classroom sets, skim the chapter or chapters in which the rising sectional conflict was discussed, and identify the topics on which they preferred to do intensive work. By this time in the year each student had found one or more texts that he preferred and which suited his reading level. Mr. Brown took several minutes to discuss the peculiar values or limitations of the textbooks for this unit. Then the distribution of books was made quickly, and the last few minutes of the period were spent in a review of skimming techniques.

By the beginning of the third class period the unit was launched. Interest had been aroused in the specific question of what caused the war. The students had been given a brief overview of the main topics they would study. They had made a start on the first major topic, using questions they had developed to supplement the study guide.

DEVELOPING THE UNIT. When the third class period began, the teacher took ten minutes to discuss and answer questions about the suggested individual assignments from which students could choose. Since he hoped to encourage the reading of biographies, specialized accounts, and fiction as an individual activity, he showed the class several books of these types, making a brief comment about each book. Students were then given the remainder of the period to examine the books. By reading parts of books related to projects in which they were interested, they could decide whether they wished to work on these projects or choose others. Those wishing to make written reports on books could locate a book that they wished to read. The teacher attempted to guide the slower readers to the easier books and to see that the better readers chose volumes that would challenge them. At the end of the period, students were to turn in sheets of paper on which they had indicated their first three choices for projects. Before leaving class, students took down their assignment for the next day. They were to study carefully the first part of the section of their textbook, which they had skimmed the night before. As they read they were to try to find answers to the questions concerning the causes of the war.

Before the next meeting of the class, Mr. Brown examined the students' requests to see if any project requests were duplicated. When he found duplication of choice in several cases, he decided

to assign these topics to students who had not received their first choices in previous units. The others were given their second choice. Mr. Brown realized that John, a slow reader, had selected a topic for which the reading material would be too difficult for him to handle. Therefore, Mr. Brown assigned the topic to another boy who had requested it, and gave John his second choice.

The next day Mr. Brown began the class by confirming or noting changes in individual project assignments. The class was then ready to focus upon the topic of slavery in the South. It had been obvious to Mr. Brown, as a result of comments during the first two days, that students had a stereotyped picture of slave life. Before they discussed the first questions they had raised about slavery as a cause of war, they needed a more realistic picture of conditions under which the slaves lived. Mr. Brown had chosen five excerpts from collections of eyewitness accounts of life in the South. Those selected reported a wide range of opinions about conditions among Negro field hands. He had duplicated copies of those excerpts, along with introductory statements which identified the authors of each description. He now distributed the material to class members and asked them to read it.

After fifteen minutes of reading, Mr. Brown opened the discussion on conditions of slavery. It was obvious that conditions differed from one plantation to another and frequently did not fit students' preconceived ideas. It was soon apparent, also, that students differed among themselves as to how much weight to give various accounts. Consequently, Mr. Brown turned the discussion to an analysis of the validity of the sources. Students were able to identify some of the biases that would probably result from the purposes of authors and their backgrounds of experience. The students were now encouraged to consider other factors by questions such as: How long did the author spend observing slave conditions? Did he observe conditions on one plantation or on many? What part of the South was he describing? Could the area he described have different conditions from those described in the other reports? Did the reporter know anything about agriculture? Would this affect the keenness of his observations? Was there any time lapse between his observations and the writing of his account? How might this affect the accuracy of the material?

The class next discussed their findings about their questions regarding slavery (see p. 95). This discussion lasted for the remainder of the hour and had to be continued during the next class period. The class was given no new assignment, but students were to continue working on their individual projects.

By the middle of the fifth day (Friday), students had discussed fairly thoroughly some of the differences in economy and society in various sections of the country (see outline in resource unit, pp. 432-33). In order to remind them of other factors that had prevented national unity, Mr. Brown introduced a review of federal-state relationships prior to 1830. Students discussed challenges to federal authority and developed the chart suggested in activity number 11 of the resource unit. The class was asked to finish reading their textbook accounts of the prewar period by the following Monday.

On Monday the class was ready to turn to the struggle that had developed between the North and the South over control of the central government. Three days were taken for a discussion of the Compromises of 1820 and 1850 and the Kansas-Nebraska Act, a report on the Dred Scott decision, a discussion of the Lincoln-Douglas debates, an analysis of the importance of the John Brown raid, and a symposium on the election of 1860 (activity number 43). By the end of the summarizing discussion, the generalization that "the Civil War was a result of complex economic, social and political pressures" had received extensive development. Students had also learned that "political parties attempt to compromise differences among sections of a country" but that war came when these efforts broke down.

As a check on what students had learned thus far in the unit, Mr. Brown took fifteen minutes the next day to have each student write an evaluation of the statement about the causes of the war that he had turned in on the first day. The remainder of the period was devoted to the current affairs discussion which had been scheduled for that day.

Succeeding parts of the unit were worked out according to the same general plan, except that no time was given in class for study except in the case of exercises on time concepts and on evaluation of sources. Oral reports, panels, student-made maps and charts, and other individual projects were presented at the time when they would contribute to class study. Less than half the students presented the results of their individual assignments to the class; several of these made only brief presentations of maps and charts. The other students did written work (book reports and projects such as activities numbers 51, 53, and 71 in the resource unit). At the end of each major subtopic of the unit there was a summarizing discussion designed to emphasize the pertinent generalizations listed in the objectives.

CULMINATING THE UNIT. After the class had completed its study

of the Reconstruction period, a day was spent in review and summary of the entire unit. For example, the class reviewed the important events listed on the time line that had been developed for class use. The major political events of this period were transferred to a rough time line on the chalkboard. Students then developed a parallel time line on economic events of this period and a third time line on events in other parts of the world. They discussed possible relationships among events on the three time lines, and they selected key dates to use as reference points during the rest of the year's work.

Finally, students considered the effects of the Civil War on various aspects of national development. They compared conditions in 1850 and 1880 with regard to the economic and political status of North and South, the status of the Negro, and the balance of power between state and national governments.

The unit came to an official close with a unit test and an evaluation of the other materials students had handed in or presented to the class during the unit. A few days later a part of a class session was devoted to a discussion of points about which students had demonstrated lack of understanding or actual misconceptions. The information, generalizations, and ideas that were treated in the unit, however, were referred to from time to time during the rest of the year, as succeeding units of study were developed.

The teacher reviewed his stated objectives as a basis for evaluating the success of the unit. He drew conclusions about its relative effectiveness partly on the basis of objective evidence he could obtain from student products, and partly through subjective judgments based on observed behavior of the students. He noted suggestions for use another year with other eleventh-grade classes, before he refiled his materials.

ADAPTING UNIT PROCEDURES. The foregoing account of how a unit was taught illustrates one way in which a teacher may develop a unit, drawing on a resource unit for helpful suggestions. It does not present a formula by which all units should be taught, for the same teacher would probably have used some quite different procedures and materials with a different group of students or in a different situation.

In this unit, pupil-teacher planning was used only to a limited extent, because his pupils had had relatively little experience with it; for the most part, students were offered choices of alternatives. With a group that had a stronger background in planning, he would probably have set up broader areas of cooperative planning. He planned to do so in later units. In this unit the teacher set and

adhered to a rather rigid time schedule, for he was reserving time during the later part of the year for topical units on such subjects as the rise of big business, labor-management relations, foreign policy, and minority group problems. His time schedules for those units would be more flexible. The teacher encouraged students to select individual activities for their special projects in this unit for two reasons. He wished to emphasize the reading of special interest materials, an activity that called for independent work. Also, in the preceding unit most of the students had carried out committee projects for their special activities, and they would use committees again in later units. The teacher considered it unwise to overuse group activities.

Other kinds of materials could have been utilized in teaching the unit, had the teacher elected to do so. He could have made more use of audio-visual materials; he planned to do so in units yet to come. He could have made more use of community resources, particularly of a Civil War collection that was available in a local museum; however, he knew that most students had already visited it, because a field trip to study it was a regular part of the junior high school course in United States history. If his school had been located in a community that had been directly affected by events of the war, and where many local history materials on the period were available, he probably would have suggested some individual research projects requiring the use of local history resources.

A major advantage of the unit organization for social studies instruction is lost if the teacher fails to vary procedures and materials from unit to unit.

Planning and teaching a unit requires time and effort, as does effective instruction in any pattern of course organization. The beginning teacher, if he is faced with several class preparations, will not be able to make expanded plans for all the units he is teaching at one time. By using resource units prepared by others and by developing a few of his own as time permits, he can be more effective and obtain greater satisfactions during his first year of teaching than he will if he turns to a daily routine of recitation based on assigned pages in a textbook. Gradually the teacher can build up a core of resource units and so reduce his planning load. Each year he will modify and add to the units in his files. As he plans each teaching unit he will select objectives, procedures, and materials that will be suitable to the particular class in which he will use them. He will, in short, adapt unit procedures to the particular situation in order to promote pupil learning.

SELECTED READINGS

SAMPLE RESOURCE UNITS

Bulletins of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C.:

No. 27. STONE, SYLVIA, and others. *A Teacher's Guide to World Trade*. 1951.

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No. 30. THE AMERICAN ASSEMBLY (Senesh, Lawtence, and others). *A Teacher's Guide to Economic Security for Americans*. 1955.

You and Economic Issues, A Series of Resource Units for Teachers in Secondary Schools. College of Education, University of Minnesota.

Unit 1. *You and Taxation*. 1953.

Unit 2. *You and International Trade*. 1953.

Unit 3. *You and Farm Problems*. 1953.

Unit 4. *Comparative Economic Systems*. 1953.

Unit 5. *Understanding the Ups and Downs of Business*. 1953.

These units were developed at an Economic Education Institute.

ARTICLES

FRASER, DOROTHY MCCLURE, and WEST, EDITH. "Politics in Action, A Unit in Social Studies," in *Illustrative Learning Experiences*, The Modern School Practices Series, No. 2. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. 29-43.

Describes a unit in which English and social studies teachers worked together.

KERN, STELLA, and FAIR, JEAN. "Teachers and Children Improve the Curriculum," in *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum*, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1955. Pp. 85-111.

Contains brief descriptions of four junior and senior high school units.

BOOKS

BURTON, WILLIAM H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.

Chapter 13 describes the process of planning and developing units.

KLAUSMEIER, HERBERT J. *Teaching in the Secondary School*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1958.

Describes the relationship between unit and daily plans. Includes separate chapters on different phases of unit teaching.

MACOMBER, FREEMAN GLENN. *Teaching in the Modern Secondary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1952.

Chapter 4 contains a log of a unit on the Far East. Chapters 5 and 6 describe planning and developing units.

RIVLIN, HARRY N. *Teaching Adolescents in Secondary Schools*, rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1961.

Chapter 4 describes how a teacher developed a unit on the United Nations with an eleventh-grade United States history class which had not previously studied an organized unit of work.

WATKINS, RALPH K. *Techniques of Secondary School Teaching*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1958.

This book is arranged in units. The order of presentation, built around a series of major questions, corresponds to the steps a teacher employs in carrying out his work.

Part III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

STUDENT PARTICIPATION

The social studies teacher who believes that learning is an active process strives for student participation in classroom activities. The social studies teacher who seeks to develop citizenship skills encourages student participation within a democratic social climate. Participation may take many forms, if the teacher is willing to move away from traditional recitation. Some forms involve overt physical activity; other, such as teacher-pupil planning and various forms of discussion, do not. All should result in interaction among the students, and between the students and the subject matter they are expected to learn. The various forms of participation should provide opportunities for learners to use information, to react to ideas, to evaluate points of view about significant problems, and to develop skills and attitudes that are basic to functional citizenship. Chapters 7 and 8 present suggestions for creating a positive classroom climate and encouraging desirable forms of student participation.

DEVELOPING A DEMOCRATIC CLASSROOM CLIMATE

Each class develops its own social climate as a product of the nature and amount of interaction among group members. In a democratic classroom, there is free, positive interaction as students and teacher work responsibly and cooperatively toward goals that have been accepted by the group as worthwhile.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A DEMOCRATIC CLASSROOM. In a democratic classroom there are genuine opportunities for participation by all members of the group (including the teacher). Standards for achievement are definite, realistic in terms of student abilities, and

known to all members of the group. A generally friendly tone prevails, with a minimum of frustration, aggression, and scapegoating.

There are several misconceptions about what constitutes a democratic classroom. The atmosphere of such a classroom is not one of *laissez faire*; a reasonably flexible but definite organization and teacher leadership which is firm but fair provide the security students need for constructive, developmental achievement. Students do not make all the decisions in a democratic classroom. Matters that affect over-all school policy or legal responsibility are beyond the scope of student action; moreover, many decisions about procedure and curriculum content are beyond their competence. Other matters may be so insignificant that students would have little interest and gain little in experience by deciding them. Areas in which students are free to decide are clearly defined in the democratic classroom. These areas will differ from school to school, depending upon school policies. They will and should vary from class to class within a school, depending upon the maturity of students and the experience they have had in decision-making and upon the teacher himself. Until he has established a satisfactory classroom control with a group, he will be wise to limit the areas of student decision; as standards of behavior and work are established, these areas may be expanded. On questions that are appropriate for student consideration, decision by vote is not necessarily a mark of a democratic classroom; such problems are usually better solved through discussion and consensus than through formal voting. A democratic classroom climate is not achieved by the teacher's fiat; it is developed over a period of time by teacher and students working together. The teacher can, however, set the tone and provide leadership in developing the desired social climate.

DEVELOPING INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS. Basic to a democratic classroom atmosphere are positive interpersonal relations. The social studies teacher can help, directly and indirectly, to establish such relations in his own classroom. He can work directly by basing his own relationships with students upon courtesy, friendliness, and respect for and knowledge of each individual. Courtesy must be consistent and must reflect the teacher's true regard for the pupil's individual personality. It may be expressed with varying degrees of formality and will certainly be the courtesy of an adult toward younger people. It must extend to situations in which students need to be corrected, and requires that the teacher avoid sarcasm and other weapons that tend to injure self-respect and self-confidence. Correction, reprimand, even punishment that is administered fairly, privately if possible, and in a spirit of courtesy,

are more effective than corrective measures imposed with hostility.

The teacher's friendliness must be genuine to be effective, and must reflect the sincere concern of an adult for the student's welfare, interests, and problems. The beginning teacher must remember that friendliness is not to be equated with permissiveness, familiarity, or undue informality. He must maintain the degree of dignity and reserve that his students expect of their teachers, or he is inviting problems in classroom control. Since these expectations vary from one community to another and from pupils and parents of one socioeconomic group to another, a teacher needs to discover what they are and how he can express his positive intentions appropriately in his specific situation. Until he has done so, he will do better to err on the side of formality than informality. He must also have some knowledge of his pupils as individuals—their abilities, hobbies, ambitions, and home conditions—in order to express his interest in individual students appropriately. Some of the ways by which a teacher can express friendly interest include:

1. Knowing and using the student's name in class and in out-of-class contacts
2. Being available for brief conversations about appropriate matters before and after class, and occasionally initiating them
3. Giving public recognition, in a manner appropriate to the maturity of the student and acceptable to him, for achievements and contributions to the work of the class and the life of the school
4. Commenting appropriately on such things as a student's attractive clothing or a new hairstyle
5. Writing appreciative as well as corrective comments on written assignments
6. Holding individual conferences about the student's work during supervised study time, commenting on both strengths and areas of needed improvement
7. Knowing why a student has been absent and expressing appropriate concern for recovery after illness.

By such direct action, the social studies teacher indirectly encourages positive interpersonal relations among students. His example demonstrates the standards of courtesy and respect for others that he expects students to observe in the classroom. He can employ other indirect approaches. By wise use of committees and other procedures he can increase opportunities for free interaction among students. By creating a reasonable number of situations calling for cooperative achievement, he can encourage mutual self-help and acceptance of responsibility for group welfare and yet provide many independent work situations. He can use sociometry, the study of

group structure and patterns of interaction among group members, to identify those who need special help in developing better interpersonal relations. Other techniques that are discussed in the remainder of this and the next chapter can be so used as to encourage the development of a democratic climate in the classroom. They include teacher-pupil planning, class discussion, group work, and sociodrama and related activities.

SOCIOMETRIC TECHNIQUES

The need to study pupils as individuals in order to teach them effectively has long been recognized by teachers, and ways of learning about abilities, interests, and background of experience have been developed. More recently educators have experimented with methods of studying relationships of individuals within a group. The teacher's own observation as well as analysis of membership lists of school activities may throw light on patterns of student's social relationships. The teacher can obtain more comprehensive and systematic data, however, through the techniques included in sociometry.

COLLECTING SOCIOMETRIC DATA. Basic sociometric data are collected from students by asking them to choose their associates for some specific activity that the class is about to undertake. Revising the seating arrangement (if seats are assigned), appointing committees, or dividing into review groups provide opportunities for asking pupils to select preferred companions. They may also be asked to indicate those with whom they desire not to be placed. The status of each individual in the group can be summarized in a sociometric tabulation, such as shown in Table 5 (p. 110). The same data can be used to construct a sociogram (p. 111), which shows graphically the relationships existing within the group at the time the sociometric questionnaire was administered.

To obtain meaningful sociometric data the teacher must select a realistic choice situation and administer the sociometric questionnaire with care. The situation must be one in which students are sufficiently interested to indicate true preferences. It must also be realistic in that the teacher will follow up the questionnaire, honoring the expressed preferences. In administering the questionnaire the teacher may say something like this:

Day after tomorrow we will begin planning for our new unit of study, "The French Revolution." From time to time we will need to break into small groups to consider suggestions about ways of working, and we will use these same groups to plan the review at the end of the unit. All the

groups will be doing the same thing, so instead of making up the groups by having you choose a topic as we have before, we'll do it by having you choose the people with whom you'd like to work and think you work best.

Will each of you take one of these cards and write on it the names of three members of the class with whom you would like to work in the planning group. Number your first choice "1," your second, "2," and your third, "3." If there are students in the class with whom you do not want to work, you may write their names at the bottom of the card. Be sure to put your own name on the back of the card.

I will make up the group lists from these cards. It will probably not be possible to give everyone all his choices, but I will see to it that everyone is in a group with at least one of the persons he has chosen. I will be the only person to see your list of choices, and you can be sure I will not discuss them with anyone.

Notice that this teacher explained the purpose of asking students to choose working companions and gave clear directions for recording their choices. He was brief and casual in words and manner. He asked directly for positive selections, but left the student free to record or not record those with whom he did not wish to work. The teacher reassured students that their choices would be used by him, and would be held in confidence.

Needless to say, the teacher must observe scrupulously this promise of privacy; otherwise he might do great harm to individuals and destroy his own rapport with the group. He will wish to develop a code for handling the data, assigning a number or a letter to each student. He should destroy the original cards on which students wrote their choices as soon as he has recorded the data in a sociometric table, a sociogram, or both.

RECORDING AND INTERPRETING THE DATA. To compile the sociometric table the teacher lists the code symbols for each student down the left side and across the top of a squared sheet. He then records each pupil's choices to the right of his code symbol, as shown in Table 5, assigning a weight of 3 to a first choice, 2 to a second, and 1 to a third. By checking the scores at the bottom, the teacher can see the individual's status in the group as revealed by the number of choices and by the total score. He can quickly identify the "stars," the "fringers," and the "isolates." This table is a convenient worksheet for making up the lists that have been promised. It is also a convenient summary of the data needed for constructing the sociogram.

Making the sociogram is the next step in studying relationships within the group. A blank form can be obtained, or prepared, with spaces for the girls on one half and spaces for the boys on the other. Different symbols—circles and broken circles, circles and

TABLE 5
A PORTION OF A SOCIOMETRIC TABLE

Student Choosing	Student Chosen											21G
	1B	2G	3G	4B	5G	6B	7B	8B	9G	10G	11G	
1B				3			2				1	
2G			3					2	1			
3G		3									2	1
4B												
5G		Student #1 chose #4, 7, 11, in that order. Student #2 chose #3, 8, 9, in that order. Student #3 chose #2, 11, 21, in that order.										
6B												
7B												
8B												
9G												
10G												
11G												
21G												
Times Chosen												
Total Score												

Key: B = Boy G = Girl

triangles, or circles and squares—are used for the boys and the girls. Starting with the girls' symbols (circles) near the center, the teacher inserts in each the code number of one of the most-chosen girls. He works out to the edge, with the least-chosen girls appearing on the fringes of the diagram. He repeats the process for the boys (squares). Next he records specific choices, by means of arrows between the symbols. Lines with an arrowhead indicating direction of choice show unreciprocated choices, while those with crossbar in the middle show that the two students have chosen one another. A small number recorded beside the line and at the edge of the choosing student's symbol indicates whether this was the student's first, second, or third choice. Rejections may be shown by dotted lines or lines in a different color.

students are likely to choose those in whose ability to produce they have at least a minimum of confidence. The selections on a dance floor might be quite different. With such cautions about their use in mind, sociometric data can be intensely revealing.

It is simply not true that a teacher "knows" from his classroom contacts what patterns of interaction exist among a group of young people, although some teachers are undoubtedly more perceptive than others. The sociogram may only confirm his impressions about students at either extreme of acceptance, although it may reveal surprises even about "stars" and "isolates." For the great majority of students who are between the extremes, sociometric data furnish some of the most useful and accurate information that a teacher can gain about individual student status and patterns of relationships within the group.

USING SOCIOMETRIC DATA. In arranging the committee plan or the new seating arrangement that was the announced purpose of the sociometric questionnaire, the teacher will take into account his new insights concerning the group at the same time that he carries out the promises he has made to the class. Each student will be given at least one of his choices, the first if that can be arranged. Preference should usually be given to first choices expressed by isolates or near isolates, unless the teacher has convincing evidence that undesirable consequences would result. Usually, no student should be placed in the same committee with one who has rejected him. The teacher will probably try to cut across friendship groups or cliques in forming the committee, in an effort to open more channels of communication between such groups. Strong leaders should be distributed among the committees to the extent that this is possible while at the same time satisfying their choices.

Important clues may be gained from sociometric data as to the procedures that will be most effective with the class as a total group. For example, a class that is definitely divided into rival cliques may not be able to carry on extensive teacher-student planning, because the rivalry may make it impossible to reach consensus. In this case, efforts at cooperative planning should be postponed or attempted only on an extremely limited scale. Again, the sociometric data may reveal leaders whose identity the teacher must take into account in attempting to communicate with the various cliques. The degree of acceptance extended to a particular ethnic or economic group may properly influence the approach to study of a problem involving that group. Thus the teacher of world history can plan more effectively for the study of Mussolini's rise

to power if he knows what status the small group of Italian ancestry holds within the class.

Patterns of social interaction within a group shift steadily, though usually fairly slowly. Therefore sociometric data indicate relationships that exist at the time the information was gathered. To use sociometric techniques effectively, the teacher must administer questionnaires at intervals throughout the year. Each new sociogram will give further clues for working with individuals and with the class as a whole. By studying the shifts in social patterns that develop through the year the teacher is better able to evaluate his own efforts to help individuals, to create a more positive group morale, and to develop a democratic climate in his classroom.

TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING

Cooperative planning by teacher and students can contribute to effective teaching and learning in the social studies classroom. If done effectively, cooperative planning increases the student's participation and his sense of personal involvement in his social studies work.

FUNCTIONS OF TEACHER-PUPIL PLANNING. Teacher-pupil planning is an important technique for building attitudes as well as for developing understanding of factual information. A further reason for using teacher-pupil planning is to teach the skills of cooperative planning themselves, skills that are necessary for civic action in modern democracy. More specifically, students can learn through cooperative planning to:

1. Follow rational steps in planning
2. Discriminate between more or less important items
3. Formulate and weigh alternatives, making choices on an intelligent basis
4. Use a variety of materials, each for its appropriate purpose
5. Listen to and weigh opposing points of view
6. Organize ideas and materials
7. Develop and accept a workable compromise, when views conflict
8. Select leaders
9. Fill special roles (such as questioner, information giver, summarizer) needed in successful group planning
10. Recognize and respect individual talents of others, and plan for their use for group purposes
11. Recognize and contribute their own special talents for achievement of group goals
12. See the values gained by pooling ideas and efforts

Students need to be aware of what they can learn from the planning process, and to be reminded from time to time of the values to be gained. Parents, too, should be helped to see that through teacher-student planning their children are learning worthwhile skills.

NEED FOR PREPLANNING. Cooperative planning is no substitute for preplanning by the teacher. Indeed, teacher-student planning can proceed successfully only when there has been extensive, flexible preplanning by the teacher. The teacher needs information about the abilities and interests of the students in the group, and about the extent of their previous experience in group planning in order to determine wisely the areas in which teacher-student planning shall be practiced. He must have clearly in mind the scope of the year's work and the general goals toward which he must guide the class. He must be familiar with the content with which students will be working and the materials that are available, in order to guide the planning. He must have various alternatives ready to suggest, if the students need such help. In short, the teacher must be equipped by his preplanning to guide students in whatever direction the group decides to move. An effective method of preplanning is to develop a library of resource units of the sort discussed in Chapter 6.

SCOPE OF COOPERATIVE PLANNING. Teacher-student planning may be concerned with broad areas of responsibility or it may be focused on limited areas. In its most extensive form, planning may be long range, involving a definition of goals for the year's work and a selection of units to be studied. Such broad planning must fit the curricular framework of the school, of course. Or long-range planning may be focused on the organization and delineation of duties of standing committees, such as those in charge of the bulletin board or the classroom library. Planning may be of an intermediate scope, such as setting goals, selecting specific topics from a list provided by the teacher, locating materials, choosing activities, and arranging a calendar for a unit of work. More limited areas may involve planning a field trip which the teacher has selected, a culminating activity, or the method of conducting the unit review. To be worthwhile, planning must involve something of interest and significance to students; otherwise their reaction is likely to be one of indifference or even hostility.

STEPS IN COOPERATIVE PLANNING. The teacher's first step in preparing students for cooperative planning is to establish clearly the scope of the planning. He must consider the requirements of

school policy, his own willingness and ability to participate in cooperative planning, and the experience students have had with it. He must also consider the course organization and content. There is little opportunity for cooperative selection of units in a chronological history course, but teacher-pupil planning may be used to determine some or all of the units of study in a twelfth-grade problems course or in a course organized around study of regions of the world.

Once the planning area has been established, the teacher should be prepared to follow through with the cooperatively developed plan. If he refuses because student ideas are at variance with his own, his good faith will be open to question. Not only will future efforts at teacher-student planning be treated cynically by pupils, but the teacher's general rapport with students may be injured.

If students have had little or no experience in cooperative planning, it is important that they see immediate, concrete, and successful results from their first efforts. Therefore it is best to begin with limited areas. It is easier to choose ways of working on a particular activity within an already established framework than to set up the over-all plan. It is easier to select materials to use in studying a specific topic than to select and organize a unit that may include several topics. The teacher can explain to the class the purposes and general plan for the unit to be studied, then invite them to help plan for definite parts of it. "We have used oral reports in our last two units. Shall we do so in this unit, or are there other ways we might try that would accomplish the same purpose?" "On this topic we could see a film that is available, or we could invite a guest speaker to discuss it with us. Which would be better? Or are there some other proposals for studying this topic?"

Such specific planning need not, in some cases should not be done at the time when the unit is first introduced. Students must have the over-all plan in mind before they are asked to plan for bits of it. They need not do all of the planning for a unit at one time. Early experiences in planning are likely to be more effective if they move at a satisfying pace and are relatively brief. The students should not be hurried, however. Cooperative planning requires time for thoughtful interaction among the planners, for consideration of alternative proposals and the values of each, and for drawing conclusions in a rational manner. Intelligent planning is problem-solving, and these processes should be consciously involved in even the early planning experiences.

Questions such as these can be formulated by students and used as a guide in planning sessions:

1. What is our purpose?
2. What are possible ways of achieving this purpose? (hypotheses; alternate courses of action)
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of each alternative? (resources needed; resources at hand; difficulties that might arise)
4. Which course of action seems best?
5. How will we evaluate our plan after we have carried it out?

Even when students have had experience in cooperative planning, the teacher who is working with them for the first time may find it best to begin with planning of a limited scope. He may start the year by presenting the basic plan for the first block of work and invite the students to help work out parts of it. In later units, when a satisfactory classroom climate is developing, the scope of teacher-student planning can be expanded.

Planning for a unit or large block of work in social studies should follow the basic steps suggested in the five questions listed above. They must, however, be adapted to the particular job at hand. Questions such as the following may be useful in unit planning:

1. What do we wish to get out of this unit of study?
2. What topics should be included?
3. What books, films, people, and other resources should we consult?
4. How shall we organize for study? Who shall be responsible for what?
5. How shall we present and pool the results of our study?
6. What schedule or calendar will we need?
7. How shall we evaluate the results of our study?
8. How shall we evaluate our plan?

A complete unit plan cannot be developed in one step by even the most experienced planners. Once the questions have been raised, a period of exploration will be needed. Students should do considerable basic reading, investigate library and community resources, and then return to report and discuss their ideas with the full class. Or the class may explore and then divide into small groups to consider results thus far and draw up proposals for the full class discussion that will follow. When appropriate, the teacher may ask each student to report in writing his suggestions for proceeding and the resources he has located. These papers may be turned over to a steering committee of students with the request that it develop one or more proposals for the class to consider. The extent of this exploratory stage and its timing should vary depending upon how much pupils already know about the topic to be studied. If the topic is one about which they know little, as

in a unit in world history, the teacher may need to introduce the unit and have pupils read extensively for exploration before they even begin to consider the questions suggested above.

Once a plan has been agreed upon and put into operation, there must be opportunities for evaluating and adapting the original plan as the need arises. Planning sessions may be put into the original schedule at regular intervals, or they may be held as circumstances demand.

Records, usually of two kinds, should be kept during each planning session. Questions and suggestions, for example, should be written on the blackboard as they are presented, so that students can keep in mind all of the points that have been made. A more permanent record should be kept, perhaps in a class notebook that will be available to both students and teacher. This record should include the major alternatives that were considered, lists of resources, and the plan as finally agreed upon. As the unit develops, this record should be available for all planning and evaluation sessions. Students can do much or all of the record-keeping that is needed. With groups that are inexperienced in cooperative planning, however, the teacher may prefer to serve as blackboard recorder.

A summary evaluation of the plan, the processes by which it was developed and the way it was carried out, is an important aspect of cooperative planning. This step should help students consolidate and generalize the learning they have achieved about the group planning process, and serve as a basis for further learning as new planning is undertaken. This final evaluation should help students realize the need for intelligent planning to get satisfactory results in situations outside the social studies classroom as well as within it.

FACTORS HINDERING COOPERATIVE PLANNING. Every teacher has heard a colleague complain, "I tried teacher-student planning and it just didn't work." It is true that some teachers encounter discouraging experiences in efforts at group planning with their classes. Usually in such cases, one or more of the following factors is present:

1. The social climate of the class is not conducive to free exchange of ideas. Perhaps teacher domination causes students to hesitate to express themselves. Perhaps conflicts and rivalries among individuals or cliques interfere with free interaction.

2. The teacher has done inadequate or inappropriate preplanning, so he is unable to provide needed help and guidance. If he is not generally well-informed about the content, materials, and procedures that could be used, he is not ready to propose alternatives and raise necessary questions.

3. The teacher is inexperienced, lacks general classroom poise, has not taught previous units, or is uncertain about how to use many classroom techniques. If he is not confident of his ability to teach when he is in complete control of the situation, he probably is not yet ready to meet the exigencies that are bound to arise during teacher-pupil planning.

4. The teacher is not ready to accept student suggestions that do not fit into his own preconceived plans. Students are quick to detect this reservation (or refusal) and react with indifference or hostility. Since most students have had few genuine opportunities for teacher-student planning, they may be suspicious even when the teacher is ready to share responsibility in planning. In this case, the teacher must remember that his actions speak more loudly than words, and must give students time to be convinced of his sincerity.

5. The scope and limits of the cooperative planning are not made clear, with resultant confusion, disappointment, and even resentment on the part of students.

6. The planning that students are invited to share concerns matters so insignificant or routine that little interest is aroused and the time spent is really wasted.

7. Students are asked to plan at a level for which they are not prepared by experience or immediate instruction. The teacher in this situation may be too permissive, failing to provide the needed leadership (which should not be confused with domination).

8. The planning is too hurried, without time for students to explore, reflect, and interact. Difficulties that should have been foreseen, such as lack of materials, arise when the plan is put into operation.

9. The plan is not developed definitely, with the result that pupils do not know exactly what they are expected to do to carry it out. Confusion and waste motion result.

10. The planning is permitted to drag. Overlong sessions are held, time is wasted, and interest wanes as immediate results fail to be achieved.

11. Plans once made are not followed through; the teacher makes changes without consulting the group, or simply "forgets" significant parts of the plan.

12. Plans once made are not re-examined by the group and adapted to the developing situation. Plans that are basically good may be ineffective in operation for this reason.

13. Students do not understand what they are expected to learn from the planning process, as distinguished from the learning of

factual information. Because there is no evaluation of their growth in the skills of group planning, they consider the time spent in planning to be wasted. They may even think they are "doing the teacher's work," an attitude hardly conducive to effective work.

The stimulation of student participation and learning that can be gained through teacher-student planning will be achieved only if the planning process is carried out effectively, at a level appropriate to the particular students. There is no social studies class in which some degree of cooperative planning cannot be used effectively if the teacher knows his students, gives adequate help, and avoids the pitfalls listed above.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

HOLLISTER, WILLIAM G. "A Bridge of Feelings," *National Education Association Journal*, 48 (September, 1959), 34-36.

Suggests four sets of "tools" which teachers can use to achieve a constructive social climate in the classroom. While most examples used are from elementary classrooms, the same principles can be applied in secondary schools.

JENNINGS, HELEN HALL. "Sociometric Grouping in Relation to Child Development," in *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools*, 1950 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1950. Pp. 203-25.

Describes the construction, interpretation, and use of sociograms.

TROW, WILLIAM CLARK, and others. "Psychology of Group Behavior: The Class As a Group," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 41 (October, 1950), 328-29.

Summarizes research findings in group dynamics, and clarifies their implications for teaching. Explains values to be obtained from group interaction.

BOOKS

JENSEN, GALE (Chairman of Yearbook Committee). *The Dynamics of Instructional Groups: Sociopsychological Aspects of Teaching and Learning*, Fifty-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960.

The contributors mobilize a generation of research in the field of group dynamics to discuss sociopsychological characteristics of instructional groups and the implications of these characteristics for effective instructional processes.

PARRISH, LOUISE, and WASKIN, YVONNE. *Teacher-Pupil Planning for Better Classroom Learning*. New York: Harper & Bros. 1958.

Presents examples of planning techniques related to the selection of topics for study, making progress reports, and evaluation by students.

ZAPP, ROSALIND M. *Democratic Processes in the Secondary Classroom*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.

Develops principles of initiating planning by describing examples. Includes chapters on the selection of problems for study and on the various phases of planning as a class works on a problem.

DISCUSSION AND GROUP PROCEDURES

Discussion is a basic method for teaching social studies. Often it is carried on within the full class group. At other times the class may divide into subgroups to discuss a point, or to carry on some other work. One measure of the success of class discussion and of work done in subgroups is the degree to which students participate constructively in these activities. This chapter presents principles and techniques that the social studies teacher can apply in using discussion and group procedures effectively in daily classwork.

CLASS DISCUSSION

There is a distinction between class discussion and the question-answer recitation that is too often conducted in the name of discussion. Recitation requires students to repeat orally the information they have gained through study. This repetition may help a student remember facts. The level of such learning is low, however, and the monotony of recitation day after day encourages student indifference or actual dislike for social studies. Discussion, by contrast, calls for the use of facts and for interaction of ideas. It is problem-centered in that it is focused on issues, reflective questions, conflicting interpretations, or contemporary problems. Discussion helps students understand, evaluate, and apply facts and concepts, as well as to remember them.

There are many uses for discussion, and many forms of discussion to be used. Here we will consider teacher-led discussions

in which the entire class participates, and some forms of small-group discussion. Special forms of group discussion are treated in Chapter 10.

PURPOSES OF CLASS DISCUSSION. The purposes for which discussion can be used in social studies classrooms include the following: to arouse interest in a topic at the time it is introduced; to impart knowledge; to establish relationships, causative factors, and so on; to identify problems or issues for initial or further study and discussion; to identify aspects of an issue about which more evidence is needed; to analyze evidence and draw conclusions about a problem or issue; to teach skills of group discussion; to develop attitudes; and, in general, to teach the processes of critical thinking. These purposes are not mutually exclusive. In a given discussion period more than one of them is usually served. An introductory discussion, for example, will usually involve identifying and defining problems to be investigated as well as arousing interest in them. Analysis of evidence frequently points up the need for more information, and at the same time influences attitudes. Development of discussion skills and of critical thinking processes should be conscious purposes in every class discussion.

THE TEACHER AS DISCUSSION LEADER. The teacher as leader of the class discussion has multiple responsibilities. His first is to decide, either alone or through teacher-pupil planning, when discussion is the procedure best suited to ensure class progress. In order to make this decision, the teacher must clarify his purposes. Next, the teacher must either provide or help students find the focus that is basic to a discussion and which distinguishes it from a recitation. The focus may be expressed in a question that relates the topic to current affairs. For example, a discussion of the results of the Civil War may be centered on the question, "To what extent are sectional differences today related to the Civil War?" A more pointed focus would be established by considering the question, "How are today's problems of racial integration related to the events of the Civil War and Reconstruction period?" Attention will be given to the "how" and "why" of the topic, with the "what" drawn upon to support and explain points of view or interpretations. Thus, factual information that has been studied will be used in the discussion, not simply recalled and restated.

While the teacher-led class discussion is taking place the teacher shifts from role to role as is necessary for progress. When ideas flow freely he is a moderator, recognizing students in turn. When a point has been fully treated, the teacher may become the summarizer or call forth a summary from students. When he judges

the time is ripe, he may become a resource person, adding information to that already known by students. Always he is a questioner, using different types of questions as they are needed to develop a line of thought, to show relationships, to help students think critically, and to stimulate as wide participation as possible.

USE OF QUESTIONS. Phrasing and using questions effectively is a complex skill, one that beginning teachers must strive to cultivate and which experienced teachers must continue to refine. The quality and appropriateness of the teacher's questions may change a potential discussion into a routine recitation, and vice versa.

Effective questions have three characteristics in common. They are clearly stated so that both teacher and student know what is being asked. "What about Marshall's effect on the Supreme Court?" is vague, and has been known to inspire a student to query, "Well, what about it?" "How did Marshall affect the powers exercised by the Supreme Court?" on the other hand, indicates a definite line of response to the student. A clearly stated question furnishes a basis for selecting facts and organizing them to explain, interpret, compare, contrast, or generalize. Usually of little value, even though understood by students, are questions that call for one-word answers, that are stated in the exact language of the reading assignment, or that by their phrasing suggest the answer. Such questions tend to test memory of isolated facts; they do little to encourage reflective thinking or develop interaction of ideas among class members.

An effective question moves the discussion ahead, providing continuity and development. Both student and teacher should understand how the question is related to what has gone before, yet it should prevent repetitious responses. When a new but related topic is introduced, the teacher should provide some transition to make the continuity clear to students.

An effective question is appropriate in type for the purpose it is expected to fulfill. A major question, sometimes called a key or pivotal question, is used to open a new topic or a new aspect of the topic under discussion. A major question sets the direction of the discussion for some time, perhaps a third or a half of the period. It is rarely a fact or recall question, but is likely to be a question calling for comparison or contrast, an interpretation of cause or effect, or the statement of an organizing idea. Follow-up questions, used to develop discussion of the major question, are more restricted in scope and often call for evidence to support an expressed point of view or interpretation. Summarizing questions will be used when a point has been considered as fully as time and class re-

sources may permit. Such a question may call for a straightforward summary of information to support different points of view, an evaluation of the significance of forces that have been discussed, a statement of cause-effect relationships, or a generalization or conclusion based on the facts that have been presented.

Sometimes it is useful to think of questions as "fact" questions or "thought" questions. It is the use of thought questions that distinguishes a discussion from a recitation. In general, the social studies teacher should use fact questions only when they are needed to encourage and support the exploration of thought questions. A teacher who uses class discussion frequently must guard against a relapse into routine recitation of facts. He can check himself by going through his discussion plan or, even better, by studying a recording of a class discussion to discover what is the proportion between fact and thought questions and whether the former are used to develop the latter.

Questions, properly formulated and distributed, stimulate student participation. Some simple rules are generally worth following:

1. Speak loudly enough to be heard in all parts of the room, but avoid monotonous shouting.
2. State the question to the entire class, then call on the student who is to respond; calling the student's name first may be taken by the others as an excuse to refrain from reacting.
3. Call on as many students as possible during a class session. Call on volunteers as much as is feasible without neglecting the shy or lazy non-volunteer.
4. Do not repeat questions, unless there is some reason why students could not hear it; instead, if a student does not respond, call on someone else or rephrase the question.
5. Take individual differences into account in distributing questions. A slow student may respond to a specific factual question, and so achieve a successful contribution when he would be lost with a complex interpretive question. The potentially superior student with careless work habits may profit from questions that hold him to painstaking support of an interpretation. The thoughtful, able student may furnish a helpful summary for the class.

Rules such as these, however, should never be followed slavishly. If a question is directed to an inattentive student to draw him back into the discussion, it may be wise to call his name before stating the question. (It is assumed that the objective is to recall his attention, not to embarrass him.) If the teacher makes a fetish of calling on every pupil in every discussion period, he may reduce or destroy free interaction and continuity in the discussion. A stu-

dent may take part chiefly by listening, yet be one of the most active participants in a discussion period. Certainly it would be tragic if the slow student were limited to fact questions and the brighter ones never held to specifics. The suggestions for questioning, like all general rules, must be adapted by the teacher to his particular situation and students.

STUDENT INTERACTION. Students should be encouraged to ask questions at any time during the class discussion. If they feel free to do so, their questions will sometimes indicate confusions and the need for clarification. If students know that their questions are welcome, they often raise significant points of interpretation and comparison. To encourage interaction among class members, the teacher can refer student questions to the group for discussion instead of answering himself. He can also encourage students to comment on points made by other students. A seating arrangement that enables students to see one another's faces, such as a circle or a hollow square, encourages freer interaction. Group techniques, described later in this chapter, may also be used to stimulate interaction among students during class discussion.

The teacher's reaction to student contributions is an important factor in developing class discussion. He should recognize superior responses, perhaps with a nod or a word of commendation, but indiscriminate or unwarranted praise defeats his purpose. The teacher must guard against responding to each contribution with the same recognition; it is easy to form a habit of "very good," or "excellent," and destroy the meaning of the commendation. The teacher must learn to correct student errors without interfering with free participation. Students themselves, if used to interacting freely, are likely to correct errors of fact and to challenge unwarranted conclusions. If a mistaken statement is not corrected by other students, the teacher must weigh such factors as the importance of the error, the probable effect of a correction on the speaker and the climate of the group, and decide whether or not to make a correction at the moment. If the error is relatively unimportant, and was made by an insecure pupil, the teacher may pass it over temporarily and make a correct statement about the topic during the summary period. If the teacher decides an immediate correction is necessary, he can usually find something in the student's contribution to praise and then follow with the correction. The teacher's manner is perhaps the most important factor in handling this problem. If he is calm, friendly, and acceptant of the student and his effort, a teacher can usually make the most direct correction with positive results.

EVALUATION OF THE DISCUSSION. Class discussions, like other classroom activities, should be evaluated by the teacher and students. Purposes of the discussion and evidence as to the extent to which they were achieved, should be considered. The teacher should check on such points as these:

1. Was the focus of the discussion clear and with meaning and interest for students?
2. Did students exchange ideas and points of view, rather than merely recite facts?
3. Did students define their terms and support their interpretations with evidence?
4. Was there continuity in the discussion, with one point developed at a time?
5. Did most students take an active part in the discussion?
6. Was the discussion well-timed, with an opportunity for summary or drawing conclusions about the issue or problem?
7. What evidence was there of growth in group discussion skills?
8. What evidence was there of growth in the reflective thinking process?

Students can formulate questions such as the following for evaluating their own part in the discussion:

1. Was I adequately prepared for this class discussion?
2. How well did I listen to the contributions of others?
3. Did I raise questions?
4. Did I treat others courteously even when their views differed from mine?
5. Did I carry my share of the discussion, expressing my own views clearly but without unnecessary talk?
6. Did I support my views with facts?
7. When I talked, did I stick to the subject?
8. How can I improve my participation in the next class discussion?

WORKING IN SMALL GROUPS

High on the list of effective procedures for teaching social studies is that of group work or committee work. By dividing the class of 25 or 35 students into subgroups and encouraging each to work cooperatively at its particular task, several constructive results can be achieved.

Small groups offer many more opportunities for individual participation than large ones. If the learner is one of five or six rather than one of thirty or thirty-five, he can speak more often, assume direct responsibility for more of the proceedings, and take a more overt part in evaluating the work of the group. There can be freer

interaction among group members in a small work group than in a class-sized group, a condition that can contribute to a higher quality of learning by each individual. There is some experimental evidence that group members working together achieve a higher quality of work than when they operate as individuals.

Small-group work can be used in a variety of ways for a variety of purposes. It contributes to the change of pace that is so needed from time to time in any teaching-learning situation. Group work can provide many opportunities to meet the different needs of individual learners. Finally, and perhaps most important of all from society's point of view, effective group work will teach the complex of skills required for working cooperatively with others. In today's interdependent world, these skills are essential to happiness in personal-social life, success in vocational efforts, and effectiveness in performing civic duties. Cooperative work skills can be developed only through practice, and practice is not gained in class-sized collections of students who are working as individuals.

Ad Hoc Groups. Groups used in the social studies classroom may be short-term, lasting for fifteen minutes or for a class period, or they may be continuing, working over the period of a unit, a semester, or even a school year. Although the same basic principles of group work apply, actual working procedures may differ with ad hoc and continuing groups.

Ad hoc groups usually serve immediate purposes, such as the following:

Getting an immediate expression of opinion on an issue or topic that is being introduced

Pooling students' experiences relating to a particular issue or topic

Providing opportunity for every student to take part in a brief discussion of a topic

Clarifying definitions or points of view in the middle of a class discussion

Giving individuals some choice of topic in discussion of current events or of various aspects of the topic under consideration

Getting definite proposals from subgroup during a planning session

Conducting a brief skills-practice period, during which students in each group work cooperatively on exercises adapted to their needs or discuss an exercise that each student has completed individually

Evaluating a film or other learning material that has been used

Evaluating class progress or a particular activity the class has completed

Participation in a buzz or huddle group, as these ad hoc groups are often called, may be a useful way to introduce students to small-group work. The purpose of the "buzzing" must be definite and clear, and, in most cases, some preparation should have been made by students. The teacher may write on the chalkboard the question or questions each group should consider, or list the activities to be performed. Each group should have a leader and a reporter, probably named by the teacher in early experiences and chosen by the group in later ones. The time set for the group meeting should be definitely stated and short enough to discourage random talk. During the buzz session the teacher will observe the various groups, perhaps visiting each one briefly to check progress and procedures. If the time set originally proves to be too short or too long, the teacher can announce an extension or call for the groups to summarize before the time is up. Usually the buzz session should be halted long enough before the end of the class period to enable each group to report briefly to the entire class. If the reports become repetitious, the teacher may ask the later reporters to add new ideas only, or indicate their group's agreement or disagreement with comments already presented. When buzz groups are used in planning, and time runs short, each reporter may turn in a written summary of proposals to be considered at the next session of the class.

Membership of ad hoc groups is usually arranged informally on the spot, perhaps on the basis of seating, or, where different topics are to be discussed by various groups, by a quick show of hands. In a class's first experiences with the technique, however, the teacher may wish to plan group membership in advance in order to have a strong leader and reporter in each group. Usually more elaborate planning for group membership is reserved for long-range, continuing groups.

CONTINUING GROUPS. Committees or groups that work together for several days or weeks are effectively used for such purposes as these:

Carrying out research or a special project within a unit of work

Planning and carrying out a definite activity involving the entire class, such as a unit review, a community survey, or a school-wide campaign

Carrying on a continuing class activity, such as developing a large time-line on the wall of the room or arranging the bulletin board

Providing a service to the class, such as managing the classroom library or keeping the clipping file up to date

Like the ad hoc group, the continuing committee must have its purposes clearly in mind as a first step in its operation. Usually the group should define its own goals. It must arrange for a chairman and a record-keeper to serve on either a permanent or a rotating basis. The committee must develop a plan of work, apportion responsibilities among the members, and set up a calendar for carrying out its plans.

During its operations the long-range group must keep records in a form that can be used for three purposes: to give continuity to the group's work; to keep the teacher, who cannot be with every group all the time, informed of progress and problems; and to serve as one basis for periodic and final evaluation of the committee's achievement. One tenth-grade class developed a form for committee minutes that included space for these items: the date, the topic on which the group was working, names of members present, a summary of work done during the period, a statement of what each member was to accomplish by the next group meeting, and questions the group wished to address to the teacher. Each group filed its minutes in a folder which was available to the teacher and the committee at any time.

Membership for continuing groups may be established in one of several ways, as appropriate. If the groups are to do special projects, each student may choose his committee according to his interest. If all the committees will be doing about the same thing, as in conducting a community survey, the teacher may use sociometric techniques in establishing committees. In situations where ability level becomes especially important, the teacher may set up groups on that basis (without so indicating to students, of course). Or students may be encouraged to choose a committee that they think will help them strengthen a weak point. Thus a boy who is shy and needs experience in appearing before the class may be encouraged to join a group that is planning a panel or a dramatization for the class.

TEACHING GROUP PROCEDURES. Working successfully in groups is a learned activity. That is, cooperative work skills must be consciously taught, just as library or map-reading skills must be taught. An early step is to discuss briefly but specifically the reasons for using group work. Consideration of the values to be gained from group procedures should be continued as students have practice in using them.

Procedures of group work may be demonstrated by having the teacher and five or six students present a model group meeting, followed by an analysis pointing out how particular techniques were

used. Or a satirical presentation of a poor work session may help emphasize faults to avoid. Some teachers have introduced group procedures by arranging for one committee to work on a special project while the rest of the class was engaged in more conventional activities. Members of this committee, having gained some experience in group procedures, then became leaders of small groups when the entire class was divided into committees.

Early experiences with group work must be carefully prepared and closely supervised by the teacher. As students gain experience, they should become progressively more responsible for organizing the group, planning its work, and locating materials. The teacher's supervision must continue, of course, but he becomes less the director and suggester, more the question-raiser and resource person.

As members of a work group plan and carry out their activities, they should become aware of the different roles, or kinds of behavior, that are needed with a successful group and learn to perform these roles. They should learn what behaviors interfere with group progress, and learn to avoid them. They should understand that each group member can and should learn to vary his role, according to the group's need at the moment. The technical terminology of group dynamics need not be used, but students can discuss actions that help and actions that hinder the work group. They may develop their own list of such actions, or they may find a simplified analysis of group roles, such as the following,¹ to be a useful basis for discussion and self-evaluation.

Actions That Help the Work Group

Initiating: suggesting a plan, a solution to a problem; introducing a new idea about ways of working; proposing an organization or an agenda

Standard setting: reminding the group of its goals and criteria, or suggesting the need for such criteria in planning the group's project

Information giving: presenting facts as they are needed

Information seeking: asking questions that must be answered for successful group planning or execution of plans

Summarizing: stopping the work group session to summarize what has been decided or accomplished so far, and asking questions to push the session a step further

Clarifying: using a question or statement to help people understand each other's comments or proposals; asking someone if this is what was meant, and then restating it in a concise form

¹ Adapted from Kenneth D. Benne and Paul Sheats, "Functional Roles of Group Members," *The Journal of Social Issues*, 4:2 (Spring, 1949), 42-47.

Gatekeeping: trying to get quiet members of the group to speak up ("I wonder if John will tell us what he thinks about this plan?") or suggesting limits on talking to keep a few people from monopolizing the session

Harmonizing or tension relieving: showing points of agreement, as a basis for further progress; calming excited group members, perhaps by a well-chosen joke or a conciliatory remark

Record keeping or reporting: keeping notes on important points, questions, and decisions, either on blackboard or in committee minutes; summarizing group progress when asked to do so

Leading: serving as chairman; or taking the lead for the moment if group seems to be bogging down

Actions That Hinder the Work Group

Blocking: refusing to accept a group decision; always objecting to ideas of others; interrupting, making rude remarks

Bossing: giving orders to the group, insisting things be done his way

Clowning: joking, wisecracking, distracting attention of other group members

Showing off: bragging about his own accomplishments and possessions, insisting on always having the "best" parts, trying to make others feel inferior

Loafing: wasting time, failing to do his part of the work laid out by the group; not preparing his part of the presentation to the class

CONDITIONS ESSENTIAL FOR GROUP WORK. Group procedures, to be effective, must be used for appropriate purposes. There are many learning tasks in the social studies classroom that can be carried out best by individuals. In the period of exploratory or basic reading at the beginning of a unit, for example, each student needs to work as an individual, although he may join a group to discuss what he has read. On the other hand, there are many social studies learning tasks that can be achieved through small-group work. When a goal has been set, the teacher must ask himself whether it can best be achieved through group or individual work.

Adequate materials must be available for study groups. Usually a variety of learning materials—such as books, magazines, graphic materials, and community resources—will be needed by the groups. The teacher must know what resources are available, and guide the selection of group projects accordingly. As students become more self-directing in group work, one of the criteria they must use in selecting projects will be, "Can we find enough materials to carry out this project?" If a careful search provides a negative answer,

another topic or project must be chosen. When this happens, if the topic is one that is likely to recur, the teacher will begin to collect materials and references for the use of groups to come.

Group reports must be presented effectively. Group members, having invested time and effort, usually want to make some kind of report and the rest of the class can learn from it—but not if the report is stereotyped, poorly prepared, or uninteresting for some other reason. Rating scales for oral reports can be used to clarify standards for group presentations. Such a scale can be made and presented by the teacher, or developed by the class under the leadership of the teacher. The reports may take many forms. A panel discussion, a mimeographed newspaper for the class to read, a dramatization, a slide presentation with commentary, an exhibit with brief oral explanation, or a presentation following the pattern of a popular television or radio program such as “You Are There” or “What’s My Line?” are some possible variations of the traditional report. When several group presentations are to come in a series, the teacher should check to be sure that a variety of report forms will be used.

EVALUATION OF GROUP WORK. Since students are expected to learn both content and the skills of cooperative work through their use of group procedures, both aspects of their learning should be evaluated. There should be the customary final evaluation, but evaluation should also be made at intervals as the group works, with the results fed back to the committee so that it can improve in areas of weakness.

While group work is going on, the teacher will meet with the various committees. He should make systematic observations of group progress and of individual behavior within the groups. The teacher should also note any evidence that students are applying in other class activities information or skills they have gained through their committee work.

The daily minutes kept by a committee supply a basis for periodic evaluation of progress. From time to time, as work goes on, committee members may fill out a reaction sheet which includes items such as the following:

1. These are the things I think we are doing well: _____

2. I think we could improve our work by doing these things: _____

3. I think we are making (check one) —excellent, —fair, —little,
no progress.

Members can decide whether these reaction sheets should be signed or unsigned.

A third kind of work report that may be kept as students become more skilled in group work is the observer's report. One student, or the teacher at first, may note how many members participated, how freely, and in what roles. The usefulness of such a report will depend, of course, on the maturity and understanding of the observer.

Committee members can profit by making a final evaluation of the group's work. They should give specific attention to such points as these:

Operation of the group: Did each member carry his share of the work? During group meetings, did we use our time effectively? In what ways did the chairman do his job well? What suggestions for improvement could be made to the chairman? In what ways did group members help the group along? What actions by members hindered the group's work? In what ways did group members improve in working together?

Adequacy of planning: In what ways were our plans complete? incomplete? What problems arose that we had failed to foresee? Did we need to revise the plans as we went along? Did we do so? How could our planning have been improved?

Effectiveness of presentation: To what extent did our report hold the interest of the class? How much did other students learn from us? How could we have improved our report?

A question that often arises is whether each member of a group should receive the same mark for the committee's performance or whether each should be marked separately. Usually both teacher and students are better satisfied with individual marks, for they know that some students do more and better work than others. Teacher observations and committee minutes furnish some evidence on which individual marks can be based. In addition, each committee member can be asked to rate himself and each other member of his committee on such points as cooperation, amount of work done, quality of work done, and general contribution to the success of the group. Students and teacher can decide, in advance of setting up the committees, what points should be included in such a rating form. If a constructive climate prevails in the classroom, students will be remarkably objective and accurate in their responses. Even though their ratings are understood to be advisory to the teacher, students gain an increased sense of participation by sharing in the marking process.

CONDITIONS NOT CONDUCTIVE TO GROUP PROCEDURES. Small-group

work is not always successful, from the point of view of either teacher or student. When it is not, analysis will usually show that one or more of the following negative conditions has been present:

1. The students had had little experience with group work, and were plunged into it without adequate preparation. The principle that group work skills must be consciously taught and learned was ignored, with resultant inefficiency or even chaos.

2. The classroom climate was essentially teacher-dominated rather than democratic. Students feared, consciously or unconsciously, to proceed on their own initiative, or they reacted to unaccustomed freedom with disintegrative behavior.

3. The teacher had not established clear standards of classroom conduct or had not achieved effective classroom control before launching group work. Student tendencies to misbehave were exaggerated in the group work situation.

4. Committees chose to work on topics that were interesting and important, but about which they had little or no material, with resultant failure and frustration.

5. Committee tasks or goals were inappropriate, involving work that could have been accomplished more efficiently by individuals.

6. Groups had too little or too much time to work; in the first case they could not carry through successfully, in the second they wasted time to the dissatisfaction of all concerned.

7. Conflicts and rivalries within a group prevented cooperative work. Continuing use of sociometric techniques could help a teacher avoid poor grouping.

8. Groups did not evaluate their progress and revise plans as they moved along, but clung to plans that became impossible because of unforeseen difficulties.

9. Committee reports became dull and monotonous because of lack of variety and advance setting of standards for them. As a result, time was wasted and student reaction to group work was negative.

10. Group procedures were used too often and too uniformly, so that they became routinized and unrewarding.

The social studies teacher, by careful planning and adherence to the basic principles on which good group procedures rest, can avoid such difficulties as these.

SOCIODRAMA

Sociodrama is a relatively new classroom method that can be used to stimulate thoughtful discussion of social studies problems.

Members can decide whether these reaction sheets should be signed or unsigned.

A third kind of work report that may be kept as students become more skilled in group work is the observer's report. One student, or the teacher at first, may note how many members participated, how freely, and in what roles. The usefulness of such a report will depend, of course, on the maturity and understanding of the observer.

Committee members can profit by making a final evaluation of the group's work. They should give specific attention to such points as these:

Operation of the group: Did each member carry his share of the work? During group meetings, did we use our time effectively? In what ways did the chairman do his job well? What suggestions for improvement could be made to the chairman? In what ways did group members help the group along? What actions by members hindered the group's work? In what ways did group members improve in working together?

Adequacy of planning: In what ways were our plans complete? incomplete? What problems arose that we had failed to foresee? Did we need to revise the plans as we went along? Did we do so? How could our planning have been improved?

Effectiveness of presentation: To what extent did our report hold the interest of the class? How much did other students learn from us? How could we have improved our report?

A question that often arises is whether each member of a group should receive the same mark for the committee's performance or whether each should be marked separately. Usually both teacher and students are better satisfied with individual marks, for they know that some students do more and better work than others. Teacher observations and committee minutes furnish some evidence on which individual marks can be based. In addition, each committee member can be asked to rate himself and each other member of his committee on such points as cooperation, amount of work done, quality of work done, and general contribution to the success of the group. Students and teacher can decide, in advance of setting up the committees, what points should be included in such a rating form. If a constructive climate prevails in the classroom, students will be remarkably objective and accurate in their responses. Even though their ratings are understood to be advisory to the teacher, students gain an increased sense of participation by sharing in the marking process.

CONDITIONS NOT CONDUCTIVE TO GROUP PROCEDURES. Small-group

showing what kind of person he is and how he is related to the problem situation.

With this preparation, class members are selected to play out the roles that have been decided upon. The rest of the class may continue its discussion of the problem situation for a few minutes, perhaps five, while the participants of the sociodrama plan staging and general lines for the action. A narrator may set the stage for the audience. The dramatic action is presented, with the teacher or the participants themselves stopping it when it has been played out.

The discussion and analysis which follows the dramatization is an integral part of the sociodrama. It should be focused on such questions as these: Why did a certain character react as he did? Was his action realistic? How did he feel when he made a certain response? Did something another said or did cause his reaction? How else could he have responded to get more constructive reactions from the other persons in the situation? For historical or social problem sociodrama still other questions might be raised. What other solutions to the problem might have been explored? Did the participants know enough about the problem, or about the characters they were portraying? Did the audience have enough information to understand and react to the sociodrama? About what points did they need further information?

After the discussion and any additional investigation that is needed, the situation may be played again with a different cast, following a different line of action suggested by the discussion or the newly obtained information. If this is done, the same kind of analysis would again be made. In this way different solutions to a problem situation may be examined.

CONDITIONS ESSENTIAL FOR SOCIOGRAMA. Poorly or inappropriately used, sociodrama may waste time or may actually have negative effects on student attitudes and behavior. The teacher can set the stage for positive results, however, by providing favorable conditions and observing certain precautions.

1. The situation must be a significant one that grows out of the current work of the class. It should be one about which students have enough information and experience to enable them to project themselves into it. It should be susceptible of being played by a few characters, perhaps three to five, so that action does not become overly complicated.

2. During the class's early experience with sociodrama, the teacher should suggest situations in detail, select participants, and direct the follow-up discussion closely. As students gain experience

It consists of unrehearsed dramatizations, followed by discussion, of situations involving social relationships. Such situations may involve problems of personal relationship, such as those arising between parents and teen-agers about allowances, use of the family car, or plans for college. They may be focused on contemporary social, political, or economic problems, such as labor-management conflicts or problems of minority groups. Or the situations may involve conflicts or moments of decision from the past, such as the crises of the Constitutional Convention or episodes in the development of the states-rights controversy. Role-playing is a form of sociodrama in which the emphasis is on carrying out roles an individual may need to fulfill in daily living or on special occasions. These may range from such roles as class chairman or applicant for a job to the more informal social roles involved in asking for or accepting a date or acting as a compromiser in a family disagreement.

Sociodrama should not be confused with psychodrama, nor permitted to slip over the border into it. Psychodrama is the acting out of deeply emotional personal problems, with a view to gaining understanding of them; it should be carried on only under supervision of a trained therapist. The teacher must recognize and respect the line between sociodrama and role-playing on the one hand and psychodrama on the other.

FUNCTIONS OF SOCIODRAMA. The major purpose of sociodrama and role-playing is to help students understand the "human relations content" of such situations, and to learn to "put themselves in the other fellow's shoes." Through sociodrama, students may gain deeper understanding about the problems and periods they are dramatizing, about the effects of certain kinds of actions on the feelings of others, and about possible ways of handling the roles they themselves must fulfill. Many of the skills that are needed for good interpersonal relations may be learned through sociodrama, for example, how to discuss rather than argue and how to express an opposing view without closing off opportunities for still other views to be expressed. Constructive attitudes toward social problems and problems of social relationships may be developed through sociodrama, if the activity is effectively handled.

ARRANGING THE SOCIODRAMA. The sociodrama should focus on an issue that is significant, one about which different views are held, and one for which various solutions can be suggested. When the situation has been chosen, the teacher or the class reviews available information about it and decides what characters are needed to play it out. A brief description of each one is developed,

ELDER, ROBERT E., and JONES, HOWARD L. "Let's Get Down to Cases," *Social Education*, 12 (April, 1948), 160-62.

Describes use of case studies to stimulate discussion in college classes. Advocates adapting the technique for secondary school social studies.

STOVALL, THOMAS F. "Lecture vs Discussion," *Social Education*, 20 (January, 1956), 10-12.

Summarizes findings of studies on the comparative values of lectures and discussions in terms of immediate recall, retention, critical thinking, and modification of attitudes.

"Training in Member Roles," *Adult Leadership*, 1, 8 (January, 1953), 17-23.

Lists helpful and damaging roles of discussion group members. Suggests methods of improving group behavior.

WHITE, TOM MURRAY. "Two Weeks in Congress: Action Research with Sociodrama in the Study of Civics," *Social Studies*, 47 (February, 1956), 43-48.

A narrative account of a class that organized a Senate and a House of Representatives to debate bills related to a single topic.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

BURTON, WILLIAM H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.

Chapter 17 presents a useful analysis of the way in which purposes of questions affect their wording and states general principles of good questioning procedures.

HOWELL, WILLIAM S., and SMITH, DONALD K. *Discussion*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956.

Describes clear-cut procedures for preparing for a discussion and summarizes principles of logical thinking needed in discussion groups. The chapters on interpersonal relations and on evidences of good and poor behavior by participants and discussion leaders should prove especially helpful to teachers.

HUNT, MAURICE P., and METCALF, LAWRENCE E. *Teaching High School Social Studies*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1955.

Chapter 8, "Discussion as a Tool of Reflective Thinking," cites running comments from actual discussions to illustrate ways in which teachers help establish a permissive atmosphere and get pupils to clarify points, think critically, and keep to the point. Additional illustrations are presented of teachers' comments designed to arouse concern about problems and help students develop and test hypotheses and draw conclusions. Because of the liberal use of excerpts from class discussions, this chapter is perhaps the best single reference on discussion in social studies.

ZAPP, ROSALIND M. *Democratic Processes in the Secondary Classroom*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.

Chapter 3 presents a clear-cut description of working with small groups.

ZELENY, LESLIE D. *How to Use Sociodrama*, rev. ed. How to Do It Series, No. 20. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960. Pp. 8.

Describes values and methods of using sociodrama in social studies classes.

with the technique they can take a larger part in planning, casting, and developing the sociodrama.

3. The teacher must help members of the audience feel that they are participants in the sociodrama just as much as the role-players, and lead them to recognize that the discussion of the action is as important as the action itself.

4. The use of sociodrama should be postponed until a generally constructive classroom climate, with free interaction but adequate control by the teacher, has been established. Otherwise both role-players and audience will find it difficult to project themselves into the sociodrama situation adequately.

5. Finally, sociodrama should not be overused or used when some other technique will serve more effectively. Students are likely to react to it enthusiastically if their first efforts in it are at all successful, but with too frequent use sociodrama, like any other procedure, may become routine.

The various means for stimulating student participation range from time-tested class discussion to relatively new techniques of sociometry and group work. Basic to the successful application of any of these procedures is the development of a positive social climate within the class group. Equally basic is the selection of the procedure that will best fit the immediate situation. Some of them, such as the approaches suggested for developing a desirable classroom climate and handling class discussion, should receive first attention of the beginning teacher. He should introduce others, such as teacher-pupil planning and committee work, as soon as he has reasonable assurance that he and the students are ready to apply them on a limited scale. In the long run, the social studies teacher's success in stimulating student participation will depend on selecting procedures in terms of their appropriateness for clearly defined goals of instruction.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

- BOYD, GERTRUDE A. "Role Playing," *Social Education*, 21 (October, 1957), 267-69. Sketches concrete situations for role-playing in social studies, and discusses values of the technique.
- DOERING, ANITA. "The NLRB in Action in Our PD Economics Unit," *Clearing House*, 27 (February, 1953), 354-55. Students in a problems of democracy class assume roles of complainants, employers, and NLRB members to hear and decide cases.

is important for sociocivic competence in adult life. Being informed on current public affairs in order to vote intelligently, for example, cannot be accomplished adequately through radio, television, and public meetings. It is necessary to read newspapers, journals of opinion, and other printed materials to obtain a balanced, complete picture.

FACTORS AFFECTING READING ABILITY

The range of reading abilities in a typical class is from three to seven grades: that is, in a tenth-grade class there are likely to be some students who read at the level of educated adults and others who read at the sixth- or seventh-grade level. To work effectively with a class, the social studies teacher must plan his teaching in a way that takes into account these individual differences in reading. A first step is to understand the causes of these differences. Many factors combine to determine the quality of a person's reading. Rarely, if ever, is there a single "cause" for a student reading poorly or well.

Intellectual potential, as nearly as it can be measured, seems to be one of the major factors affecting reading ability. Usually a student of high intelligence is an effective reader, but one or more of the other factors discussed below may prevent him from reading as well as he could. Children of below average ability tend to be poor readers, and the limit of their ability sets a limit to their development in reading and other skills. In relating these facts to an intelligence quotient, however, we must remember that reading is an intrinsic part of response to group-administered intelligence tests.

The richness and breadth of a student's background of experience influence his reading ability. If he has traveled or visited museums, for example, he will bring to the reading of social studies materials many concrete experiences that will help him to give meaning to the printed symbols. The student who sees his parents habitually reading and who has contact with books and magazines at home is likely to approach his social studies reading with more favorable attitudes than the student in whose home the opposite is true.

Reading disability often involves emotional factors. The disturbed student may be unable to concentrate on the complicated process of reading, or his emotional difficulties may have interfered with his learning the basic skills in the elementary school. Sometimes teachers have rationalized failure to help a student improve

READING SKILLS

Until recently most social studies teachers in secondary schools took it for granted that their students were able to read the textbooks and other materials assigned to them. Reading was a skill that students should have "mastered" in the elementary grades. If they had not done so, that was unfortunate, but it was not the responsibility of the social studies teacher to remedy the fault. Today alert social studies teachers know that if a student reads poorly, he will find it hard to learn in social studies. They know that there are probably a number of reasons for the poor reader's deficiency. They help the student develop reading skills, instead of wasting time in blaming the elementary schools for his plight. Informed teachers know, too, that the good reader can become a still better reader, and that a person can continue to improve in reading skills throughout his life. Helping all students to improve in reading is accepted today as a part of teaching the social studies.

Reading is a key skill in the social studies because much of the learning in this field can be gotten most effectively from the printed page. The concepts that are presented are too numerous, too varied, and involve too many abstractions for students to learn them through direct experience alone. Time is too short; even if it were not a factor, many social studies concepts cannot be developed through first-hand experience. For example, a class cannot study the events of the French Revolution or the causes of divorce through direct experience. The printed page can be an effective substitute for experiences that would be unduly time-consuming, impossible, or undesirable for youth. But this is true only if the student can derive meaning from that page.

Besides being important for success in school, effective reading

data, often arise. The ability to set a purpose for reading and then adjust rate and method of reading to the purpose is needed in all reading, including that done in social studies work.

Students also encounter special problems in reading social studies materials. They must be able to interpret the specialized vocabulary of the social studies. They must learn to recognize a sequence of events, to identify cause-effect relationships, and to evaluate in terms of historical accuracy. They must be able to interpret specialized graphic materials, such as cartoons, statistical charts, and maps; they must be able to relate the information thus presented to that gained from narrative material.

Social studies reading materials tend to present certain difficulties. The concept load, or number of separate ideas introduced in a given space, is often heavy. If many ideas are compressed into a short space, reading is difficult despite short sentences and simple vocabulary. Even the better secondary school student will find it so. Textbooks in the social studies tend to be especially compact and therefore difficult to read. Many of the concepts found in them are relatively abstract and often far removed from students' experiences. Frequently such concepts are presented with insufficient explanation to clarify them for the typical student. Technical terms are often used without adequate definition or illustration. The same difficulties are to be found in many non-text materials used in social studies classes, such as supplementary accounts, newspapers, and current magazines.

The need for reading instruction in social studies classes is clear. Reading experts and social studies specialists have joined forces to develop ways of meeting this need.

PLANNING FOR READING INSTRUCTION

Since each student has his own pattern of reading achievement and difficulties, these individual differences must be taken into account in any plan for reading instruction in the social studies. Information about each student's reading abilities becomes a starting point for planning reading instruction based on regular social studies assignments. To provide for individual differences in reading it is necessary to make available a variety of reading materials on the topics being studied by the class.

DISCOVERING READING ABILITIES. The factors responsible for individual differences in reading abilities suggest the kinds of information about each student that the social studies teacher needs in order to plan reading instruction. These include information about

his reading by saying that the difficulties were caused by "emotional blocks" which the teacher was not qualified to handle. Certainly a teacher must know when to keep hands off in the case of serious maladjustment, and how, in such cases, to obtain qualified help for the pupil. But reading specialists point out that in most cases where emotional factors hinder effective reading the pupil is not seriously maladjusted. Usually he can profit from the kinds of help suggested in this chapter.

Closely related to emotional factors, even underlying them in some cases, is the element of motivation. When students have an active purpose in reading they may read considerably above their measured reading level. It is a common observation that secondary school boys who are poor readers but ardent sports fans have no difficulty with the sports page of the newspaper. On the other hand, reading clinics sometimes advise the withdrawal of a student who has been sent for help if he has no desire to improve his reading. Unless the student is motivated, little can be done to help him.

A student's physiological condition helps or hinders his performance in reading. Partial-sightedness, limited hearing, or malnutrition resulting in a low energy level will handicap a student in reading, especially if he has made a poor start in the basic skills. Teachers should be alert to recognize such physiological handicaps and call them to the attention of the school nurse or principal. Often some help can be provided by the school authorities.

Finally, reading is affected by the student's general level of language ability, the correctness of his speech, the range of his speaking and listening vocabulary, and so on. Reading is one aspect of language, not a separate skill area. The student who has a small speaking vocabulary, mispronounces many words, and speaks in broken sentences will probably have difficulty in reading. A student's improvement in any aspect of language ability—reading, writing, speaking, or listening—is likely to have a positive effect on his control of the others.

PROBLEMS IN SOCIAL STUDIES READING

As they read social studies materials, secondary school students encounter some of the same problems that they meet in their general reading. Those related to vocabulary often head the list. The student finds familiar words used with an unfamiliar meaning, and new, non-specialized words. Problems related to organizing what is read, recognizing and relating main ideas to their supporting

student to turn in a slip of paper giving name of book and pages read, will provide a rough indication of reading rate. It is also useful to observe the kinds of books a student selects in free-choice situations, whether or how much a student reads for recreation, and how much and what kinds of newspaper and magazine reading he does. The student who has reading difficulties probably attempts little reading beyond that required.

A few oral reading periods early in the term will help the social studies teacher identify the student with reading problems. He is likely to read slowly and haltingly, mispronouncing common words. He may read words that are not there, or omit words. He may read word endings incorrectly, or read words in incorrect order. If a student makes such errors as he reads a paragraph or two in his turn, the teacher should arrange for a private conference and ask the student to read more social studies material aloud. This will offer opportunity for more careful analysis of the errors made, and enable a shy student to react more freely than he does before an audience of his peers. (See Strang, McCullough, and Traxler in *Selected Readings* for suggestions about analysis of errors made in oral reading.) Under no circumstances should reading aloud be required in a situation that will bring prolonged or recurrent embarrassment to the student. To do so will, in all likelihood, only intensify whatever problems he has with reading.

The teacher, using social studies material, can construct exercises to test student performance in various reading skills. Examples of such exercises are given in the later part of this chapter.

Intelligence Scores. Almost every school has on file for each pupil intelligence quotients or mental-age scores derived from one or more group-administered tests. Many schools also have for their exceptional students scores derived from individually administered intelligence tests. Reading scores or reading performance should be interpreted in relation to mental age or intelligence scores, since a close relationship seems to exist between native ability and potential development in reading skills. The student with average or above-average ability can probably profit from direct instruction in reading skills. For the student with low mental ability, help in reading skills may be useful, but the teacher must also provide him with other means of learning to supplement reading.

Background Information. School files usually contain information about each pupil's health, home background, general school achievement, and special interests. Where school files are inadequate, the social studies teacher can obtain background informa-

performance in reading, native ability, as nearly as that can be measured, and health, home background, student interests, and general school achievement. All of this is information the teacher needs to carry out an effective social studies program in general, as well as to plan specifically for reading instruction.

Reading Tests and Observation. Where standardized reading tests have been administered as part of a school-wide testing program, the results will record a composite grade-level reading score for each student. This composite score indicates the reading ability of the student in terms of the average student in a given grade. A reading score of 8.6, for example, indicates that the student reads as well as the average student who has been in the eighth grade for six months. Thus a tenth-grade student with a score of 8.6 is retarded in reading by more than a year, while a seventh-grader with this score is a superior reader.

Depending upon the reading test used, various part-scores (on rate, vocabulary, for examples) may be available for each student. Most diagnostic reading tests provide grade-level scores for reading rate, comprehension, and vocabulary. The part-scores indicate the student's points of weakness or strength. If a tenth-grade student, for example, has a score of 12.1 on comprehension, 11.3 on vocabulary, and 9.2 on rate, both teacher and student will recognize that he should concentrate on improving his speed.

If student scores on standardized reading tests are not available in the school records, the social studies teacher should consult with the principal (or the department chairman in a large school) about the possibility of having such tests administered. The references given at the end of this chapter will be helpful in choosing the best test for the particular situation and in learning how to administer it and interpret results.

If no standardized reading tests can be administered, there are other methods by which the social studies teacher can recognize students who have reading difficulties. Even in schools that maintain a testing program, these methods will provide valuable information about student reading performance.

Information about students' reading habits can be collected through observation. During class work-periods when the group is reading, individuals can be observed for such points as these: lip movements, an indication of excessive vocalization in reading; frequent interruptions in reading, glancing about the room, or other indications of lack of concentration on the reading; and squinting, frowning, or other evidence of straining to see the printed page. The amount read in a given period, determined by asking each

the skill is being presented in the one class, it can be reinforced by appropriate practice in the other. Probably the social studies teacher finds the most obvious and numerous occasions for co-operation with the English teacher and the librarian. Students themselves will help identify opportunities for interdepartmental cooperation if they discover that the teachers concerned welcome this information.

IMPROVING READING SKILLS

Effective reading instruction requires an analysis of the total reading process so that teacher and student can focus attention on one aspect at a time. Reading, like any other complicated process, cannot be learned as a whole; it must be approached step by step, but with the interrelatedness of the steps always recognized. From comprehensive analyses of reading skills covering all fields, twelve aspects of reading may be selected as appropriate for emphasis in the social studies classroom. Eight are discussed in this chapter: developing reading readiness, reading for main ideas, reading for important details, organizing what is read, skimming, adjusting reading method and rate to purpose of reading, developing vocabulary, and improving speed and comprehension. Four other aspects of reading are treated in connection with topics in which they are functionally involved. Using reading aids provided in most social studies materials is discussed in Chapter 17, locating sources of information and reading critically in Chapter 13, and reading maps, charts, and time lines in Chapters 11, 12, and 19. Secondary school students have made some beginning in most of these aspects of reading. The job of the social studies teacher is to plan a developmental program of reading instruction that will help each student expand his use of these skills in the reading of social studies materials.

DEVELOPING READING READINESS. Many teachers think of reading readiness as something to be developed in early childhood before teaching the child to read, something that is achieved then once and for all. Such an idea is incorrect, for effective reading at any stage depends on the readiness of the reader to attack a given piece of material. A student has achieved readiness for a social studies reading assignment when he has a clear purpose for his reading, has an interest in fulfilling that purpose, and has command of the vocabulary and skills needed for the particular reading to be done. For almost every reading assignment in secondary social studies, some time can profitably be spent in developing readiness.

tion directly from students, using the techniques suggested in Chapter 4. He can also give a brief questionnaire on reading preferences. It could include such questions as these:

1. Do you like to read?
2. What do you like best to read?
3. What do you like least to read?
4. What other members of your family spend much time reading?
5. How many books does your family have at home?
6. How often do members of your family get books from the library?
7. What magazines does your family take?
8. What magazines do you enjoy reading?
9. What subjects do you enjoy reading about?
10. What do you find hard in reading?

PROVIDING SUITABLE MATERIALS. Since the students in any one class differ widely in their reading skills and interests, materials suitable for the range of reading abilities in the class should be provided. The need to provide for a variety of purposes and interests must also be taken into account in selecting reading materials for any unit of work. In the course of a unit on the American Revolution, for example, different materials are needed to serve different reading purposes; these may include getting basic information about the Revolution, preparing a special report or research paper on one of the events of the period, or reading a historical novel about the period as a means of getting a picture of manners and customs of the time.

Films, recordings, realia, and other learning materials also have a place in reading instruction. Frequently they can be used to arouse student interest and to motivate the reading of social studies material. At the same time such materials can help students develop and expand their experience backgrounds for terms which they encounter in their social studies reading.

COOPERATING IN THE SCHOOL-WIDE READING PROGRAM. Reading done by students in social studies classes is affected by their reading experiences elsewhere in their daily lives. For most students the great proportion of these experiences occur in connection with school. The social studies teacher needs to know about his students' reading instruction in other classes in order to plan his own work more effectively. As he collects information about student reading abilities and problems, he will learn who is doing what about reading. The social studies teacher can then find points for cooperation in teaching particular reading skills. The reading of graphs, for example, is important in both mathematics and social studies; when

paragraph, or a headline for it. At the end of the work period or at the next session of the class, students may compare and discuss the adequacy of their statements or headlines.

Modified true-false items based on the reading assignment may be used to check the student's selection of main ideas in a longer passage. He should be told to mark each item with a plus if it is a main idea of the passage, or with a zero if it is not, and to be ready to explain his answers.

Exercises like these should be discussed, not merely corrected. The student who chose the wrong response needs to understand why his choice was wrong, and why another idea is the main thought of the paragraph or passage.

The study of newspapers and current-events magazines offers excellent practice in reading for main ideas. The high degree of organization of these materials usually facilitates the exercise of this skill. Furthermore, one of the most important uses of the skill in daily life is in the reading of newspapers and magazines.

When reading assignments stress selection of main ideas, the follow-up discussion or other activity should be based on main ideas and should avoid emphasis on details. If students are asked to read for major points and find themselves cross-examined for specific detail, they will be discouraged in later efforts at reading for main ideas.

READING FOR IMPORTANT DETAILS. Reading for details must be done more slowly and thoroughly than reading for main ideas. In order to understand and retain specific facts, the reader must accept this as his purpose and adjust his reading rate and methods accordingly. He must learn to get as many details as possible in one reading. He must realize that he will remember a specific fact longer and understand it more fully if he relates it to other facts and to a broad idea.

Exercises in which the student reads an article or a passage in a textbook, closes the magazine or book, and then answers specific questions on the material he has read will be useful in improving reading for details. The teacher can make such reading check-tests, using multiple-choice or modified true-false items. Dictated questions requiring a word or a phrase for answer may be used to check students' reading for important details if the entire class is reading the same assignment at the same time. In each exercise in reading for details, students should reread to correct any errors they have made. Exercises of this kind will be most valuable if used as study aids, rather than as tests to be "graded."

When students are required to read for specific facts, they should

Many of the approaches suggested in Appendix B for introducing a unit of work can be adapted to establish purpose for a reading assignment and create interest in it. A discussion, an opinion poll, an anecdote, or a film, for example, may be used to stimulate interest in a topic and help students set purposes for their reading. If the assignment is related to a unit or topic that has been effectively introduced, the first steps in developing reading readiness have probably been largely accomplished. What remains to be done will depend on the nature and scope of the assignment.

To help students with the needed reading skills the teacher must know the potential difficulties in the material to be read. These may include unfamiliar concepts, difficult words, specialized terms, or new types of graphics. The teacher must provide explanations, definitions, and illustrations that will enable the student to attack the reading assignment successfully. If a particular skill, such as skimming, is needed, it should be taught or reviewed.

READING FOR MAIN IDEAS. The ability to read rapidly through a paragraph, a passage, or a chapter and select the main ideas is basic for student progress in social studies. It is also one of the most important reading skills of the adult who keeps himself informed about current public affairs.

Exercises based on regular social studies reading assignments can be utilized throughout the year to help students improve their skill in reading for main ideas. A discussion or review of this skill should precede the year's first practice in using it. It may be desirable, also, to demonstrate the skill. One of the exercises suggested below may be adapted for this purpose. Throughout the term a variety of exercises such as those given in succeeding paragraphs may be used for continued practice.

Multiple-choice items similar to the following may be made by the teacher and used as a check on the student's selection of the main idea of a paragraph.

Directions: Read the second paragraph on page 98 of the text (beginning "Solon acted as"). Check the statement below that expresses the chief thought of the paragraph:

- 1. Solon prevented ownership of weapons by the peasants.
- 2. By coining money in the name of Athens, Solon aided trade.
- 3. Solon was greatly respected in Athens.
- 4. Because of his voting reforms, Solon is called the founder of Athenian democracy.

Students may be instructed to read through an assignment as rapidly as possible, then glance through it again paragraph by paragraph and write in a separate sentence the main idea of each

studies assignment can be used to improve organization of reading, since summarizing involves selecting main ideas and putting them together in a coherent fashion. The cautions concerning outlining of assignments apply equally to the use of summaries.

Many of the organizing devices suggested elsewhere in this book can be adapted for helping students organize information gained from reading. These include parallel time lines, exercises in identifying relevant and irrelevant material, and exercises in relating new information to that already known by the reader.

SKIMMING. The ability to glance rapidly through the printed page to get a general impression of the content, to locate the answers to particular questions, or to identify sections that must be read more carefully is invaluable in social studies work. Whenever students do independent study for special reports they need to skim in order to locate material. Reading a newspaper efficiently requires skimming. Checking a date or another needed fact calls for skimming. Yet many readers, students and adults, have never been introduced to this skill.

The student must be helped to realize that in skimming he should skip over many words and even over whole sentences, using special clues to locate needed information. Such clues are provided by headings and topic sentences which give a general impression of the content and help him locate paragraphs that he should read more thoroughly. If the reader is checking the date of an event, he looks in an appropriate part of the book or article for dates and for the name of the event or related events. If he is skimming to locate information about a particular topic, he can identify key words and then glance through the appropriate section for those words. Skimming exercises done within a time limit encourage the student to read rapidly and use the clues suggested above.

The teacher can work out skimming exercises based on the social studies textbook, on current-events papers, or on other materials used by the group. Some exercises should emphasize use of headings, some should utilize topic sentences, and others should focus on key words, names, or dates. The examples given below will suggest forms such exercises may take.

Skimming to get a general impression

Directions: Turn to page 267 in the textbook and skim through the section entitled "Causes of Juvenile Delinquency," reading only the headings and topic sentences. You will have two minutes in which to do this. When time is called, close your book at once. In the space below list the main points included in this section.

have opportunities to use these facts in situations more meaningful than a question-answer recitation or an examination. Important specifics can be used to support a point in discussion, to provide an accurate setting for a dramatization, or as a basis for a cartoon or a piece of imaginative writing.

ORGANIZING READING. The organization of what is read involves the relating of specific facts to the concepts or main ideas that they support. It involves understanding of sequence and interrelationships of fact. It usually requires the reader to relate newly gained information to knowledge he already possesses. It is an ability essential to successful work in the social studies, where students must deal with relationships, broad generalizations, and concepts concerning social phenomena.

The first step in teaching for skill in organizing what is read is to help the student understand what the process involves and how it will help him with his social studies work. Exercises emphasizing the skill of organizing what is read can be made for almost every basic social studies reading assignment. The teacher may provide a study sheet listing the main ideas that are presented; after each a space is left in which, after he has completed the reading, the student is to write in supporting details. Or the study sheet may list after each main idea a number of specifics that are given somewhere in the total assignment, but only some of which are related to the particular main idea under which they appear. The student's task is to mark out any substatement which does not support the statement under which it has been placed.

Outlining a well-organized passage from a textbook, a current-events paper, or other social studies reading material can be used to improve the student's skill in organizing what he reads. Class members may work together to construct an outline on the blackboard, or students may work individually. For variation the teacher may provide a jumbled outline to be rearranged by students after they have read the section on which it is based. Outlining will be useful, however, only to the extent that the student sees specifically where he has correctly selected main ideas and related subordinate facts and why his errors are errors. Routine outlining of reading assignments without careful analysis of the student's paper may do more harm than good for the poor reader. If his outline receives a low grade he will know he made errors. But unless the teacher helps him to understand the errors and how to correct them, the chief result will be to discourage him and encourage negative attitudes toward reading, outlining, and the social studies.

Writing a summary of information gained from reading a social

studies assignment can be used to improve organization of reading, since summarizing involves selecting main ideas and putting them together in a coherent fashion. The cautions concerning outlining of assignments apply equally to the use of summaries.

Many of the organizing devices suggested elsewhere in this book can be adapted for helping students organize information gained from reading. These include parallel time lines, exercises in identifying relevant and irrelevant material, and exercises in relating new information to that already known by the reader.

SKIMMING. The ability to glance rapidly through the printed page to get a general impression of the content, to locate the answers to particular questions, or to identify sections that must be read more carefully is invaluable in social studies work. Whenever students do independent study for special reports they need to skim in order to locate material. Reading a newspaper efficiently requires skimming. Checking a date or another needed fact calls for skimming. Yet many readers, students and adults, have never been introduced to this skill.

The student must be helped to realize that in skimming he should skip over many words and even over whole sentences, using special clues to locate needed information. Such clues are provided by headings and topic sentences which give a general impression of the content and help him locate paragraphs that he should read more thoroughly. If the reader is checking the date of an event, he looks in an appropriate part of the book or article for dates and for the name of the event or related events. If he is *skimming to locate information about a particular topic*, he can identify key words and then glance through the appropriate section for those words. Skimming exercises done within a time limit encourage the student to read rapidly and use the clues suggested above.

The teacher can work out skimming exercises based on the social studies textbook, on current-events papers, or on other materials used by the group. Some exercises should emphasize use of headings, some should utilize topic sentences, and others should focus on key words, names, or dates. The examples given below will suggest forms such exercises may take.

Skimming to get a general impression

Directions: Turn to page 267 in the textbook and skim through the section entitled "Causes of Juvenile Delinquency," reading only the headings and topic sentences. You will have two minutes in which to do this. When time is called, close your book at once. In the space below list the main points included in this section.

Skimming to locate answers to questions

Directions: Read the following questions, underlining or writing in the margin key words and names to use in skimming for answers. Skim the section in your text entitled "Achievements of the Greeks" (pages 122-29) to find the answers. Write beside each question the number of the page on which you find the answer. Read that part of the text carefully so that you can discuss the question in class.

- ___1. In what way was Thucydides' view of history more like our own than was that of Herodotus?
- ___2. What methods used by Socrates made his teaching so effective?
- ___3. How has Euclid influenced present-day mathematics and science?
- ___4. In what forms of art did the Greeks excel?

Skimming to locate a specific fact

Directions: The facts called for in the following questions are to be found on the indicated pages in your text. Before opening your book, read through the questions to decide on key words, names, or other clues to help you in skimming, and write your clues in the space provided. Open the book to the given page number on the signal, use your clues to locate the specific fact called for in the first question, and write the answer in the space below the question. Continue to the next question. Work as rapidly as you can. This exercise is timed.

1. p. 339. Who were 2 pioneers in the use of anesthetic?
 Key words: _____ Answer: _____
2. p. 338. Name a leading geologist of the 19th century and write a sentence about his work.
 Key words: _____ Answer: _____
3. What was Audubon's contribution to American life?
 Key words: _____ Answer: _____

DETERMINING READING RATE AND METHOD. Some students (and adults) read always in the same way and at the same rate because they do not understand the need for variation in method and rate, or do not know how to achieve it. Four factors affect the choice of method and rate in reading. The first is the reading level of the material. If it is crowded with ideas, if sentences are long and vocabulary is difficult, the reader must use a slow rate. A second factor is the reader's familiarity with the subject. Material concerned with a topic which is new to the student must usually be read more slowly than material of equal difficulty on a familiar topic. Third, the nature of the material influences reading rate and method. A factual treatment such as that found in a textbook must usually be read more slowly and with more attention to organizing and retaining details than a historical novel.

Reading purpose is the fourth and often the key factor in the selection of method and rate of reading. The reader must know his purpose and adjust his rate and method accordingly. If he

needs to find the answer to a particular question, he chooses the method of skimming and the rapid rate demanded by that method. When he prepares a reading assignment in his textbook, he probably reads slowly and carefully to get all important details. Later, in reviewing the same material in preparation for an examination, the student will probably read rapidly for main ideas but with attention to organizing what he reads.

The social studies teacher should take every opportunity to point out the need for adjusting reading rate and method to the material and to the purpose for which the reading is being done. As reading skills are taught, the appropriate use of each should be emphasized. As an assignment is given, students may discuss what method and rate of reading will accomplish the purposes of this particular assignment. In short, there is little reason for isolated drill in choosing an appropriate reading rate and method; every reading assignment should provide functional exercise in developing this aspect of reading skill.

DEVELOPING VOCABULARY. Words are symbols which offer various levels of understanding. One level is that of simple recognition or the attachment of a single meaning to a word; thus the word "run" may be understood as the act of moving or going hurriedly. At a deeper level is the realization that a word may have more than one meaning, depending upon how it is used. The word "run," for example, must be interpreted differently in each of these cases: *it was a run-of-the-mill assignment; he agreed to run for the presidency; there was a run on the bank.* A reader may be able to give a correct explanation of each of these uses of the word "run" and yet fail to reach a third level of understanding. He may know that *to run for the presidency* means to try to be elected to the office of president, for example, but he cannot fully grasp the implications of this use of *to run* without a knowledge of political parties and election procedures. The reader's background of experience with each of the meanings of "run" determines his understanding of the word. The deeper, broader, and more vivid the meaning backgrounds possessed by the student, the more fully he will understand the words he reads. The social studies teacher must provide experiences that will enable students to develop rich meaning backgrounds for social studies terms. He must not assume that because a student understands a term at the level of mere recognition, he comprehends its meaning wherever and however used.

There are many ways of building meaning backgrounds for social studies terms. Providing appropriate direct experiences heads

the list. The student who attends campaign rallies, watches candidates on television, and interviews political party workers will enrich his understanding of *to run for the presidency*. Recall and sharing of previous experience can be an effective approach. The teacher may, for example, write the key word or phrase on the board and ask students to tell what they know about it, where they have seen it used, and what they understand it to mean. Vivid vicarious experiences, through such media as films and recordings, can be used to develop meaning backgrounds for new or difficult terms.

Exercises in word study can help students expand their social studies vocabularies, if they go beyond mere copying of definitions. Vocabulary exercises should encourage students to use new words, to look for new meanings for familiar words, and to analyze words that they meet in social studies reading.

Many teachers provide, as part of the unit assignment, a unit vocabulary which includes new and important words and phrases. Students are expected to study this vocabulary through an exercise like one of the following:

1. List the words of the unit vocabulary on alternate lines of a notebook page. As you learn the meaning of a word, write in the space after it a sentence in which the word is used correctly and a synonym. Use each word in conversation outside of class.
2. Make an illustrated unit dictionary by finding or drawing a picture, cartoon, or diagram to illustrate each word in the unit vocabulary list.
3. Be prepared to present, with the aid of other students upon whom you may call, a short skit or charade to illustrate six words on the unit vocabulary list.
4. Mark the words or phrases in the unit vocabulary list that you do not understand. Learn the meaning of each by getting a definition from the dictionary and finding in your reading at least one example of its use. Be prepared to present the definition and the example to the class. Try to use each of these words in conversation or class discussion before the end of this unit.
5. Study the unit vocabulary. Choose the five words or phrases that you consider most difficult and write on a card a definition of each in your own words. These will be used in a quiz program which will be part of the unit review.

Sometimes the unit vocabulary may be used as the basis for a pretest. In this case each student may be expected to concentrate, during the unit, on the words he has missed on the pretest. Another approach to vocabulary study allows each student to build his own list of the new words he encounters in his social studies read-

ing, and apply exercises such as those suggested above to this list. Word-study exercises for the entire class, based on the assigned reading may be used as frequently as they are needed. A useful practice is to devote five to ten minutes to such exercises two or three times a week. The exercises may stress finding several meanings for a word, listing as many words as possible from a given root word, getting the meaning of an unfamiliar word from context, using suffixes and prefixes to determine the meaning of a word, and identifying synonyms and antonyms for the word under consideration. When given orally, such exercises may be worked out by the entire class with the results placed on the chalkboard. If they are written, they may consist of multiple-choice, matching, or other objective items made by the teacher from basic reading material.

IMPROVING SPEED AND COMPREHENSION. Reading speed is important, but without comprehension speed is useless. To read as rapidly as is consistent with understanding is the goal. The most constructive way to help students improve their reading speed is to help them with the specific skills discussed above, especially that of adjusting reading rate and method to material and purpose.

There are also some general approaches to helping students increase reading speed without sacrificing comprehension. One is to provide a wealth of interesting material at or slightly below the student's reading level. Wide reading in easy, interesting books or magazines contributes to the development of speed without loss of comprehension; at the same time, such reading helps build the meaning backgrounds as well as the attitudes that will enable the student to attack more difficult materials. Another approach is to time, at regular intervals, students' reading of social studies material of ordinary difficulty. Current-events magazines, pamphlet materials, or a passage from a textbook may be used. The timed reading period should be followed by questions that test comprehension. Each student may keep a record of his own reading rate and comprehension score on a graph or chart so that he can see his own progress over a period of time.

The modern social studies teacher recognizes his responsibility to help students improve their reading of social studies materials. To carry out this responsibility, he uses school records, observation of reading habits, and diagnostic exercises to learn about student reading abilities and difficulties. With these abilities and problems in mind, the teacher plans a developmental program of reading instruction based on social studies materials that his pupils are using.

Such a program involves direct teaching of basic reading skills that are needed for social studies work, such as skimming or reading for main ideas, followed by many opportunities for functional use of the skills. It requires continued attention to developing interest, motivation, and background for each reading assignment. It calls for the use of a variety of learning materials and of classroom procedures for the teaching of various reading skills. Finally, a developmental program of reading instruction in social studies is closely integrated with the regular work of the class.

SELECTED READINGS

HUNNICUTT, C. W., and IVERSON, WILLIAM J. (eds.). *Research in the Three R's*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1958. Pp. 103-75.

Includes condensed versions of significant research such as Dewey's "Comprehension Difficulties of History," Rudolf's "Teaching Students How to Read Social Studies Materials," and Gray and Holmes' study on direct versus indirect teaching of vocabulary.

LAZAR, MAY (ed.). *The Retarded Reader in the Junior High School*, Publication No. 31. New York: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1952.

Discusses factors causing retardation and presents many suggestions for methods and materials to use in remedial teaching.

ROBINSON, HELEN M. (ed.). *Corrective Reading in Classroom and Clinic*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 79. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1953.

Useful sections for the high school teacher on diagnosing reading problems, developing vocabulary, and teaching pupils to adjust reading rates. Lists materials for remedial work.

ROBINSON, HELEN M. (ed.). *Promoting Maximal Reading Growth Among Able Learners*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 81. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Describes goals and techniques for working with able readers at all school levels.

SMITH, NILA BANTON. *Read Faster and Get More From Your Reading*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958.

A book for adults which provides numerous suggestions and exercises for improving reading skills of average and better readers.

SPACH, GEORGE D., and BERG, PAUL C. *The Art of Efficient Reading*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1955.

A college manual which contains ideas that can be adapted for high school students. Good sections on the importance of organizing what is read, adapting reading rate to purpose, intensive reading, rapid reading, and tools for learning words.

STRANG, RUTH, and BRACKEN, DOROTHY KENDALL. *Making Better Readers*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1957.

Presents an overview of practices in elementary grades and describes differences in reading abilities and interests. Identifies important reading skills and explains how to teach skills in different content areas.

STRANG, RUTH; McCULLOUGH, CONSTANCE M.; and TRAXLER, ARTHUR E. *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*, rev. ed. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1955.

Perhaps the most useful single book on reading for social studies teachers. Includes a special chapter on reading in social studies. Suggests ways of determining pupils' reading ability, developing vocabulary, improving comprehension of main ideas, using reading groups, and working with slow and rapid learners.

LISTENING, WRITING, AND SPEAKING

The mastery of communication skills is as important to civic competence as to successful economic and social activity. Freedom of expression is essential to the democratic process, but the legal right means little if citizens lack the ability to communicate with one another. They must be willing and able to study what others have to say about public problems and to express their own thoughts effectively.

Communication skills are important to individual students both in and outside the classroom. For successful work, the learner must understand instructions, garner knowledge, and present information to classmates. A large proportion of learning activities in school, and certainly in social studies classes, requires the use of communication skills. Students also need these skills if they are to participate effectively in school clubs, in outside social activities, or in part-time jobs.

The teacher of English, of course, has the primary responsibility for teaching communication skills. But teachers in all subject fields must reinforce the instruction the student receives in English by helping him apply and improve these skills as he uses them in other curriculum areas. The social studies teacher has a special responsibility to do so because communication needs are closely related to social studies goals. Methods of teaching reading in social studies were described in the previous chapter. The present chapter treats the equally important skills of listening, speaking, and writing as applied to social studies.

IMPROVING LISTENING

Studies show that the average adult spends almost as much time listening as he spends in reading, writing, and speaking combined. Samples of voters in recent elections indicate that more of them relied upon radio or television than upon newspapers or magazines for information they used in making decisions about candidates. Other studies have shown that personal influence of relatives, friends, and even strangers, communicated orally, is more important than any other factor in voting decisions.

Despite the importance of listening, few adults or high school students listen effectively. One study indicates that the average person retains for immediate factual testing only about 50 per cent of the material to which he is exposed. Another investigation reveals that there are more poor listeners at the senior high school level than at the junior high school level, and more in the junior high school grades than in the elementary grades. These facts indicate that attention to listening skills is needed in the secondary school.

The teaching of listening skills has been neglected almost completely until recently. Children entering kindergarten or the first grade can gain information by listening but ordinarily cannot read or write. Consequently, teachers have accepted responsibility for teaching reading and writing, but tend to take listening skills for granted except for an occasional admonition to "listen carefully" or "pay attention." Those who do not listen well thereafter are frequently thought of as children of low intelligence, although studies have now shown that both dull and bright people may be poor listeners.

There is evidence that listening skills can be improved through training. In a recent study of a group of college freshmen, those ranking among the lowest 20 per cent on an initial listening test were given twelve weeks of intensive training in how to listen. As a result, they did as well at the end of the period as the average of the entire group of freshmen tested at the beginning. Many did better. In an adult class of business and professional people, training in listening resulted in nearly a 50 per cent improvement in listening efficiency.

In some ways, listening skills resemble the skills of reading. Both depend upon an understanding of vocabulary. No matter how attentive the student, he will be unable to comprehend what he hears unless he understands the words. Thus, as a pupil's vocabulary increases, he can improve his listening skills as well as his reading.

In other ways, listening skills differ sharply from reading skills. Much reading is done when the reader is alone. Much listening is done in group situations, where the listener must learn to concentrate despite distractions created by other people. A reader can turn back to check what he has read, but a listener must grasp information and ideas as they are spoken. A reader can skim a piece of material for organization and main ideas, then reread more carefully. A listener has to identify the structure and main ideas of a speech or an organized discussion as he hears the presentation.

DEVELOPING LISTENING ATTITUDES. Basic to improvement of listening skills is a desire to listen more effectively. The pupil must see that he can gain interesting, useful information and ideas through listening, and that he is handicapped when he does not listen effectively. Also, he must recognize his listening deficiencies and believe that he can overcome them by reasonable effort.

The teacher can use several approaches to encourage attitudes conducive to improvement in listening. He can quote the results of studies of the importance of listening for success in different occupations, the poor listening habits of high school students and adults, and the gains people have achieved through training in listening skills. Several such studies are summarized by Nichols and Stevens (see Selected Readings). To help students recognize their own listening deficiencies, the teacher may administer a test demanding recall immediately after he has given specific directions or information. Or he may administer one of the standardized tests of listening skills that are listed at the end of this chapter.

The teacher can encourage the pupils' desire to improve their listening skills by emphasizing the importance of good listening for school achievement. He can refuse to repeat questions or directions. He can draw upon oral reports, panel discussions, and class discussions for test items. Occasionally he can have pupils write summaries of an oral presentation or a class discussion, or note the new information that they gain by listening during a class period.

If the teacher is to succeed in inculcating the belief that listening can bring pleasure and serve as a means of acquiring useful information, he must consider the students' level of maturity and ability. Listening to content that is too difficult for comprehension or unrelated to student interest may develop negative attitudes and poor listening habits. This is not to say, however, that students should not be exposed to reasonably difficult material. Indeed, it is good practice for them to listen to such material, provided that it is not confusing to them. The student must also learn to listen even when not vitally interested and to speakers who are inade-

quate or annoying. Listening is part of a two-way process and the listener must assume his share of the responsibility. He cannot maintain the attitude that "If I do not understand you, it is entirely your fault."

Nevertheless, a student is more likely to develop positive attitudes toward listening if he has interesting, constructive experiences with this aspect of communication. To achieve this, the teacher must insure that oral reports and panel discussions are well prepared and interestingly presented. He must plan for class discussions that introduce new material, permit students to compare data from various sources, and give opportunity for students to react to and apply data and ideas that are presented. He must emphasize the value of preparing for listening to a speech or other oral presentation by learning something about the topic and identifying questions on which the speaker may throw light. He must also provide direct instruction in how to listen for various purposes.

LISTENING FOR MAIN IDEAS. One of the most important purposes in listening is to identify the main ideas that are presented by the speaker. A listener may try so hard to remember each fact mentioned that he fails to distinguish and remember the essential points. If, on the other hand, he is able to pick out and remember the important ideas, the listener is likely to recall many of the supporting facts.

Usually it is easier to identify the important ideas in a formal speech or discussion presentation than in an informal discourse or conversation, because the former have a definite organization or pattern. Teaching pupils the common structure of a speech or discussion helps them listen for the speaker's main points.

Through analyzing a few well-constructed speeches the student will learn that they consist of four major parts. A brief introduction, designed to catch attention and arouse interest, is followed by a statement of the thesis, purpose, or scope of the speech. This second part of the speech sometimes includes an overview of the main points to be discussed, thus providing the listener with a brief outline of what is to come. The third and fourth parts of a well-structured speech are the main body and the conclusion. The body of the speech is the longest part, of course. Usually it is divided into a number of sections. In an informational speech each section begins with a generalization followed by supporting facts or arguments. In a persuasive speech, on the other hand, the speaker is interested in implanting ideas in the minds of his listeners before he states them. Ordinarily, he opens each section with a question. He then presents facts related to the question and finally states his

opinion. Knowing this structure helps pupils identify the persuasive speech and listen more critically for persuasion devices, illogical arguments, or the omission of important data. In both informative and persuasive speeches, the conclusion provides a summary or synthesis intended to help listeners remember the main ideas of the speech.

Formal discussions by a panel or a discussion group also usually follow a definite pattern. The discussion leader identifies the topic of the presentation, raises the major issue, and then guides the discussion through a series of pertinent questions. Participants present opinions and generalizations as well as data concerning the issue or topic. When the main points related to each question have been developed, the leader or one of the other participants summarizes before the group moves on to the next question. If the pupil knows this pattern, he can be alert to make notes on the summary of each point even if the discussion moves too rapidly for him to list all the facts or arguments as they are given. If he takes notes in outline form and reviews them soon after the discussion is over, he can fill in many of the specifics from memory.

Certainly the student, during his lifetime, will listen to many speeches and discussion presentations that are not clearly structured. Nevertheless, his acquaintance with the pattern of a well-organized speech or discussion will help him to analyze even those that are less than well organized. Practice in identifying the components of a formal speech or panel discussion is, therefore, valuable in improving listening skills.

To teach the structure of a well-organized speech the teacher may use recordings of addresses on subjects that relate to the unit that is being studied, or to a topic in the news. At the end of each part of the speech, he may stop the recording for a discussion of the speech's structure. After students have experienced such part-by-part analysis, other speeches may be played in entirety before the analyses are undertaken. If recorded speeches are not available and cannot be taped from radio and television broadcasts, teacher or students can read aloud speeches secured from newspapers, *Vital Speeches*, or other sources. Similar exercises in identifying discussion patterns can be conducted with recordings of panel discussions or through analysis of discussions presented by small groups of students.

In a well-prepared presentation, the speaker frequently helps the listener by indicating main ideas through the use of clues, such as signal words, pauses, gestures, and variation in tone and rate of enunciation. These clues are substitutes for the headings, topic

sentences, and paragraphing that are found in well-organized written material. The student should learn to listen for such signal words as "first," "second," "another," "next," or "finally." Because a pause is often used in lieu of the section heading or paragraph indentation in written material, he should note carefully the first sentence after an extended pause. It is likely to present a main idea. A change in tone or speaking pace may indicate that an important idea is being enunciated. For example, the speaker may suddenly speak more loudly to emphasize a point, or he may pause and speak deliberately, in quiet tones, to call attention to an idea or conclusion.

A speaker before a live audience communicates in part through gestures and facial expressions. He may count off important points on his fingers, move about or shift position during transitions, or pound the rostrum with his fist for emphasis. He may ask rhetorical questions and answer them with a shrug or a shake of the head. He may indicate his own feelings about a point with a smile, a frown, or a hesitant manner.

Most of these clues can be demonstrated to students as they listen to speakers by radio, by television, in auditorium programs, or in class sessions. If a speech or discussion program is recorded and played in class, the teacher can stop it at appropriate points for students to identify and discuss the significance of clues provided by the speaker. Students can learn to use, in their own oral presentations, clues that will indicate the organization of their remarks and the major ideas they are presenting.

Identifying main ideas in poorly organized speeches or unstructured discussion is, of course, much more difficult than recognizing them in a well-structured presentation. If the student discovers that the speaker or panel is not following a pattern in which a main point is indicated and then discussed, he must be prepared to shift his listening and note-taking techniques. Instead of trying to take notes in outline form, he may take running notes which he can later review and organize. Or he may divide the note paper into three columns. A narrow left-hand column may be used to note each important topic or issue mentioned by the speaker, with space between the entries. In the second column, opposite each entry, the listener may note facts related to the topic, and use the third column for related conclusions or generalizations presented by the speaker. Thus, the listener is enabled to do some organizing as he takes notes. Later he will need to review and complete the organization of the material, in order to identify the main ideas.

LISTENING CRITICALLY. The effective listener does not accept passively everything he hears; he constantly relates what the speaker is saying to what he already knows. Is the speaker misstating a fact? What new facts or ideas is he presenting? What evidence does he use to support his arguments?

Those who have studied the skills of listening believe that a cause of poor listening is related to the fact that thinking, measured in words, is a faster process than talking. The average person talks at the rate of about 125 words per minute. He thinks at about four times that rate. This differential is likely to lead to stray thoughts on the part of the listener. At first only brief irrelevancies may cross his mind while he waits to hear the next words; he may miss little or nothing that is being said. Unless he gives full attention to the speaker and his topic, however, his mind may wander to such an enticing subject or serious worry that he does not return fast enough to what is being said. He may miss an important point. Then he may find it hard to follow an argument or explanation, and he is tempted to give up the struggle and let his thoughts roam once more to pleasanter or more pressing matters.

The differential between the verbal rates of thinking and speaking, however, provides the careful listener with time for thinking about what is being said. He can attempt to weigh information in order to record that which he considers important. He can anticipate the thoughts of the speaker and then check to see if he has been right. He can summarize points already made and identify persuasion techniques or generalizations based on limited evidence. Letting his mind work on the topic under discussion helps him refrain from diversionary thoughts which distract his attention. By pointing out the differential in the verbal rates of thinking and speaking and the possible uses to which it can be put, the teacher helps make pupils aware of the need for critical listening.

Although pupils should not accept passively everything that they hear, neither should they close their minds to what is being said because they disagree with the speaker, are antagonized by his words or manner, or think that he is slanting information. Rather, they should seek to analyze what is said, look for new ideas, and try to understand the speaker's viewpoint. Listeners ordinarily experience difficulty in hearing and remembering ideas opposed to their own. By summarizing for students the results of research on this subject, the teacher can help pupils realize the need of even greater concentration when listening to people with whom they disagree. Students also should learn to postpone final judgment of

what they have heard until later, when they are feeling less antagonistic.

ANALYZING THE PRESENTATION. Following a speech, discussion, or important conversation, the listener should summarize and analyze what has been said. He should try to restate the main points, and reconsider the ideas and data in the light of what he already knows about the subject. He should examine arguments for logic. He can think back to persuasion techniques by which the speaker tried to arouse his emotions or stir him to action. He can analyze *basic assumptions underlying the presentation*. If he is suspicious of the speaker's facts, he can check them, and he can compare what the speaker has said with the conclusions of other authorities.

The teacher can help students develop the habit of examining speeches and discussions by calling for summaries and analyses, and by planning with students the steps needed to verify conclusions about which they are uncertain. From such activities students can learn that review and analysis help them to remember important ideas and reduce the *likelihood* that they will accept ideas uncritically. To help them understand the role of such an analysis, the teacher may play an effective persuasive speech, administer an attitudes inventory concerned with ideas expressed in the speech, help the class analyze the speech for persuasive devices and the logic of arguments, and then readminister the attitudes inventory. Many students will probably have changed their opinions, as a result of careful consideration of the arguments. Following a discussion presentation, the teacher may ask pupils to write a summary of the major points before they have gone over their notes and organized them. Then he may give pupils the opportunity to organize their notes and analyze the material, and assign the writing of new summaries which will be compared with the first.

IMPROVING WRITING AND SPEAKING

Writing and speaking, both means of expressing ideas, have a number of common elements. These include the need for defining the purpose of the presentation, organizing the material to be communicated, and using techniques that will interest the intended audience and clarify for its members the points that are made by the writer or speaker.

PREPARING THE MATERIALS. As the student plans an oral or written report or prepares to participate in a panel or group discussion, one of his first steps should be to define the purpose or purposes he seeks to achieve. What major ideas does he wish to

communicate? To what audience is he addressing himself? By answering these questions, he can establish a focus for the writing or speaking he is to do. This focus will help him to define his topic and provide guide lines for his selection of material and techniques of presentation.

The student should be reminded of the need for organizing his paper or speech in order to develop ideas logically, avoid duplication, and help his reader or listener grasp the substance of his presentation. When he has gathered his material, he must mull over the information, sort out ideas, draw conclusions, and finally prepare an outline. The social studies teacher can provide guidance and experience in the organizing process by requiring a progress report at an appropriate point in the student's preparation of a paper or an oral presentation. This report may include a list of sources that the student has consulted, an outline for the presentation, and a list of items that remain to be checked before the speech is planned in more detail or the writing is begun. The teacher should give constructive criticism about the progress report, either in writing or, preferably, in a conference with the student. The entire class can benefit from sessions early in the term during which selected progress reports are examined, their strong and weak points discussed, and suggestions made for improving future reports of this type.

As students begin their preparation of a written or oral presentation, the teacher may review with them some useful techniques for gaining and holding audience interest and clarifying the points to be made. He can stress the importance of a brief, colorful introduction and overview, of getting into the body of the presentation promptly, and of providing a suitable conclusion. Students should be reminded to use simple, direct language, and avoid the overcomplicated vocabulary and sentence structure that some pupils are tempted to use to demonstrate their self-assumed erudition. The class may discuss the use of appropriate anecdotes, human interest stories, concrete detail, and examples to develop and clarify a main point. An examination of articles in popular magazines will help pupils see how professional writers use these techniques to attract and hold their audience. Some of the exercises suggested on page 160 for improving listening can also be adapted to this purpose.

IMPROVING WRITING SKILLS. Along with other teachers, the social studies instructor can help pupils improve and apply their basic writing skills in a variety of situations. Whenever the need arises the teacher should discuss with a particular student or with

the group how writing can be made more effective. For example, the students should:

1. Use unified paragraphs and topic sentences
2. Use simple, direct sentence structure, but vary sentence forms to avoid monotony
3. Use simple language and avoid clichés, flowery expressions, and excess words
4. Check the paper for and correct such grammatical errors as incomplete sentences, indefinite reference of pronouns, dangling participles, and shifts in person or tense
5. Check the completed paper for general form and correct punctuation, spelling, or typographical errors

The social studies teacher has a specific responsibility for teaching pupils how to prepare bibliographies and footnote references. He can stress the importance of citing sources of information by requiring that all papers students hand in, except for tests and routine exercises, include a bibliography, even if only one source has been consulted. Early in the year, the teacher may distribute and discuss with students an instruction sheet containing examples of acceptable bibliographic and footnote form. If possible, the social studies teacher should cooperate with the other teachers in the school to develop standard forms to be used in all subjects.

In teaching writing skills, as in all aspects of instruction, the teacher needs to know what level of performance each student has reached and what are his strengths and weaknesses in this area. In most schools some indication of this can be obtained from English teachers or from achievement test scores in the pupil's cumulative record. If the information is not available from either source, the social studies teacher can use papers submitted early in the year to diagnose student difficulties in writing and plan the instruction that is indicated. Each student can be asked to build a file of sample papers during the year, and to compare them at intervals to note his progress or lack of progress in various aspects of writing skills.

Before students undertake the first long written project of the year, the teacher should discuss the problem of plagiarism. Pupils need to consider why plagiarism is unacceptable, and of what it consists. Many will believe that if they change or omit a few words from a passage, they have made it their own. Sometimes students fall into the error of using most of the author's words as they take their notes and then forget that they have not put his ideas into their own words. They should be reminded also that they must give credit for graphs, tables, and charts as well as for

written statements. In many cases, they need to be warned against excessive use of quotations. Some pupils, fully impressed with the idea of giving credit where credit is due, go to the extreme of stringing together one quotation after another, instead of writing in their own words.

If a social studies teacher is to help students develop writing skills, he must do more than provide opportunities for students to write; he must teach writing skills directly. To do so, he should help students before and as they write, not merely grade papers which have been submitted.

When students are engaged on long writing projects, it is wise to have them do part of the work during the class period when the teacher can advise and check their progress. They may use the classroom library or the school library to collect information. While they are working, the teacher may go from one to another checking bibliographical cards, suggesting other references, and examining notes. When students reach the stage of organizing material, he can help individuals as they arrange their note cards and prepare their outlines. Outlines made by younger pupils should be checked before they begin to write. After pupils have made a good start under supervision, they may be asked to finish their papers outside of class.

Frequently, English teachers are glad to cooperate with the social studies teacher to help pupils improve writing skills. They may be willing to plan lessons on writing at the time students are about to engage in writing projects in social studies. A single project may, on occasion, satisfy requirements in both English and social studies. The social studies teacher can help students collect and evaluate the information, while the English teacher helps them organize the material and write the paper. Both teachers may grade the paper, with the English teacher evaluating usage and writing and the social studies teacher evaluating information and the use the student has made of it.

The teacher owes it to pupils to read papers carefully and make suggestions for improvement. If he grades papers without indicating what is good or what might be improved, he will do little to help pupils improve their skills. He should try to find something positive to say about each paper, along with his adverse criticisms. To the extent possible, he should discuss papers with individual students during classroom study periods.

There should be variety in the written activities and assignments used in the social studies class. Repeated assignments of the same type, whether term papers, book reports, or essays, become monotonous.

onous. Pupils, moreover, need to develop skill in the different forms of written expression, and those with special interests and abilities should have the opportunity to expand and develop them. Fortunately, many kinds of written activities are appropriate for social studies classes. A suggested list is found in Appendix B.

DEVELOPING SPEAKING SKILLS. There are many opportunities in the social studies class to reinforce or teach the skills of effective speaking. Students make oral reports, work in committees, present small group discussions, and engage in general discussion. If the need for good speech habits is not kept before them, they may not attempt to apply skills that are taught in their English or speech class. Techniques for improving discussion skills have been presented in Chapter 8. In the next few pages suggestions will be made for using oral reports and small group discussions.

Oral Reports. Oral reports have several uses in social studies classes. They provide opportunities for developing speaking and listening skills and for presenting enrichment materials to the entire class. Reports also provide opportunity to care for individual differences in interest and ability. They may be based upon reading, field trips, interviews, study of visual materials, experimentation, or on a combination of sources.

A class may prepare its own sheet of instructions for the preparation, delivery, and evaluation of oral reports. Students can discuss their reasons for considering speakers whom they have heard to be effective or ineffective. They can also consider methods that they have found useful in preparing reports. On the basis of such discussion, the teacher or a committee may draw up both a list of directions and an evaluation sheet to be used by the teacher and the class in evaluating reports. In some cases, an evaluation sheet that has been developed by the students in their English class may be adapted for use in social studies. An example of a checklist for evaluating oral reports in senior high school social studies classes is given in Chart 1. For younger students, a simpler checklist is more appropriate.

It is the teacher's responsibility to see that oral reports treat significant topics and are scheduled at a time when they are relevant to the class study. Ordinarily there should be a limited number of oral reports in any one unit and not more than one or two should be given during one class period.

The teacher's responsibility does not end when a floortalk has been assigned and scheduled. He should be sure that the student making the report has collected necessary information and plans

CHART 1

RATING SCALE FOR FLOORTALKS

Name _____ Date _____ Topic _____

Content:

Showed need for
more research

Information sound;
included important
ideas

Uninteresting;
presented bare
outline

Used interesting
detail and concrete
examples

Showed lack of
critical evaluation
of sources

Showed evidence of
critical evaluation
of sources

Disjointed

Well-organized

Delivery:

Stilted

Informal

Hesitant, stumbled

Smooth

Apathetic

Seemed interested,
and alive

Hard to understand

Spoke distinctly
and with appropri-
ate emphasis

Read talk
Used too many notes

Used only a few
notes

Too long
Too short

Right length for
topic and for class
attention

to discuss the most important points related to the topic. He may do this by means of a student progress report, of the sort described on page 128. If appropriate illustrative materials are available or can be made—pictures, maps, graphs, blackboard diagrams, or a filmstrip, for example—the teacher should see that the student plans for their use. When the report is to be presented, the teacher should introduce it and show its relevancy to the topic under study. He must be prepared, after the student has finished speaking, to raise important questions that class members may not ask. Usually these questions will clarify points that were not adequately presented or bring out major ideas that the reporter overlooked. Finally, the teacher should discuss the report with the student to help him understand how he may improve his reports. If an individual conference is impossible, the teacher can at least give the student a written evaluation, including suggestions for improvement.

Small Group Discussions. A small group of students may use one of various kinds of discussions as a means of presenting new information or different points of view to the entire class. Four of the most common discussion forms are described below.

One of the easiest kinds of discussion for a small group to conduct is the symposium. The chairman introduces the subject and calls on each member for a brief, set speech. Participants present different aspects of the topic or differing opinions about a controversial issue. The symposium members then question each other and answer questions from the class.

A panel discussion is more difficult for students to conduct effectively. The chairman helps to guide panel members as they discuss a series of questions related to the main topic. The questions have been drawn up beforehand, although others will arise naturally out of the proceedings. Each member of the panel is expected to contribute to the discussion of each question; no set speeches are permitted. The chairman needs to be skilled at summarizing, giving each member a chance to participate, and keeping the discussion moving. Following the panel presentation, the class may ask questions of panel members.

In a formal debate two teams of students argue the pros and cons of a specific issue such as, "Resolved, that Congress should pass the — bill." Speakers from each team, in turn, present brief formal speeches in support of their respective positions, a speaker for the affirmative being followed by one from the negative. Then

each side presents a brief rebuttal of the arguments of the opposition, the negative team speaking first.

The competitiveness of a debate stimulates interest but may not be conducive to careful reflection and open-mindedness. Most issues involve several points of view, each one of which has arguments for and against it. The debate, however, tends to foster what semanticists call a "two-valued" point of view, in which one side is considered entirely wrong and the other completely right. Debates, therefore, should be used with caution, for they may discourage the application of critical thinking and problem-solving techniques.

The town meeting provides a slight modification of the debate. Several students present set speeches for and against a proposition or for a modified position. Instead of using a formal rebuttal, the members of the group question each other. Finally, the chairman throws the meeting open to questions from the class. No attempt is made to determine who has won the argument, although an effort may be made to reach a generally acceptable conclusion.

Small discussion groups need to be prepared carefully if they are to be successful. Preparation requires both study of the topics to be presented and planning of the presentation. The class should discuss in advance the techniques used in each form of discussion. Students may listen to a recorded discussion of the type that is to be presented by a class committee. Students who are preparing a symposium, panel, debate, or town meeting may record their program on tape in a practice session and study the results before presenting their discussion to the class.

Students develop effective communication skills as the result of a carefully planned cumulative program. It is not enough for the teacher to give students opportunities to read, listen, speak, or write; he must provide direct teaching of the skills desired. He must also consider problems of vertical and horizontal articulation with other classes. Students need many opportunities to review and use skills studied in former classes. In addition, they need help in developing communication skills at an increasingly mature level. This help is best given if the social studies teacher cooperates with those of other subject areas where these same skills are stressed. Finally, the social studies teacher, recognizing that individuals progress at different rates in all aspects of learning, must discover the level of each pupil's command of communication skills and help him to develop them further.

SELECTED READINGS

LISTENING TESTS

- Brown-Carlson Listening Comprehension Test: Evaluation and Adjustment Series.* Grades 9-13. Forms AM and BM. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1953-55.
- Sequential Tests of Educational Progress: Listening.* Grades 4-6, 7-9, 10-12, 13-14. Forms A and B. Princeton, N.J.: Cooperative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service, 1956-57.

ARTICLES

- KEGLER, STANLEY B. "Teaching to Overcome Pupils' Listening Lag," *Clearing House*, 27 (April, 1953), 497-99.
Analyzes similarities and differences between listening and reading. Advocates direct teaching of listening skills.
- "Listening Number," special issue of *Education*, 75 (January, 1955), 281-352.
Helpful articles on levels of listening, improving listening, and evaluating listening ability.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

- FLESCHE, RUDOLF. *How to Write Better*, Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1951. Pp. 49.
Contains suggestions for high school students on gathering and organizing information, planning opening and closing statements, arousing interest, clarifying ideas, and polishing written material.
- HOWELL, WILLIAM S., and SMITH, DONALD K. *Discussion*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1956.
Chapter 11 contains a clear explanation of different forms of small discussion groups.
- LARKIN, MYRTLE S. *How to Use Oral Reports*, How to Do It Series, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1954. Pp. 7.
Presents specific suggestions on developing criteria for good reports, selecting topics, and types of reports.
- NICHOLS, RALPH G., and LEWIS, THOMAS R. *Listening and Speaking*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1954.
A manual for college communications courses. Contains practical suggestions on detecting and using speech patterns when listening, taking notes on different kinds of discussions, critical listening, and improving speeches.
- NICHOLS, RALPH G., and STEVENS, LEONARD A. *Are You Listening?* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957.
Summarizes research on the development of listening skills and describes techniques for improving listening ability. Designed for popular consumption.
- TURABIAN, KATE L. *A Manual for Writers of Term Papers, Theses, and Dissertations*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1955. Pp. 82.
Makes recommendations for footnote and bibliographic form, punctuation, and use of quotations.

of the passage of time or the duration of various periods; and he perceives relationships among events which took place in the same era or over a period of years. He uses his time concepts by considering events in the perspective of both historical antecedents and concurrent happenings.

MEASUREMENT OF TIME. Underlying other time concepts is a knowledge of how time is measured. A person needs to understand the relationship of day and night to the rotation of the earth. He should also understand how the revolution of the earth around the sun affects seasons and the length of the year. He must learn the arithmetical system of seconds, minutes, hours, days, weeks, months, and years that is employed in our calendar. He must also learn the conventional system of chronology by which years are reckoned backward and forward from the birth of Christ. He must gain facility in handling B.C. and A.D. dates and be able, when he has occasion to do so, to figure the length of elapsed time between one important event and another. In addition to knowing the conventional system of chronology, a person should be aware of other systems in use today, such as the Hebrew and Arab calendars.

VOCABULARY OF TIME. The vocabulary of time includes both definite and indefinite time references. Definite time words denote either a measured period of time, such as decade and century, or a specific point in time, such as noon, mid-century, or a specific date. Indefinite time references include words indicating time relationships such as before, future, or successive, and indefinite time periods such as an age, an epoch, or a generation.

A person can interpret expressions such as "ages ago," "years ago," or "in the distant future" only by understanding the context within which they are used. A reader, therefore, must discover in what context the author is using such terms before he can grasp the intended meaning. Even definite time references, such as "three decades ago," can be understood only if the point from which to measure is established.

SENSE OF PASSAGE OF TIME. A sense of the passage of time is important for an understanding of significant social studies generalizations. For example, a person who does not realize the long time span covered by many historical periods has little conception of the persistence of social institutions or of the slowness with which most cultural change occurs. Consequently, he has little patience with peoples who are slow to make changes in their way of life.

The ability to sense the passage of time involves several elements.

Initially, it entails the ability to differentiate the past from the present. Although the primary-grade child may read and repeat stories of things that happened centuries ago, he is likely to think of these occurrences as make-believe, or happening in the present or at about the same time as last Sunday's trip to the zoo. Only gradually does he learn to think in terms of past, present, and future. Another element is a comprehension of the duration of a historical era or event, either one the person has experienced or one about which he has read. Closely related is the ability to realize the length of time which has elapsed between an event and the present day. A sense of the passage of time also includes the ability to compare the lengths of various periods. For example, a person who has studied world history should recognize that the period in which Rome ruled the world of its day far exceeded in length the period during which the United States government has been in existence.

TIME RELATIONSHIPS. The person with well-developed time concepts has learned to look for relationships among events, conditions, and trends in human affairs. When thinking about an important event or trend, he asks himself: What else happened at this time? Just prior to this date? Immediately after it? What was happening in other parts of the world at this time? Could it be that these events were related?

Understanding time relationships demands recognition of the chronology of events. Unless a person can identify chronological relationships, he cannot begin to search for cause-effect relationships. The ability to arrange events chronologically is more difficult when events are not related in obvious fashion. It is easier, for example, to remember the sequence of diplomatic events leading up to a war than the time sequence of a series of mixed technological, economic, and political developments even though these are interrelated.

As a basis for understanding the chronological order of events, a person needs to learn the conventional historical periods—ancient, medieval, and modern—and the sequence in which they occurred. He needs to know, almost to the point of automatic recall, a few key dates. With this kind of mental time framework, he is able to place events or trends in their proper time setting.

Relating events that occurred contemporaneously in widely separated parts of the earth demands a world-wide framework. Many people have separate time frameworks for events in the United States, in Western Europe, and in other parts of the world. As a result, they frequently fail to understand the causes and full sig-

nificance of events and developments. The person who has failed to relate the defeat of the Spanish Armada and the rise of British sea power to the establishment of English colonies in North America has only a partial understanding of the colonial period of United States history. On the other hand, the person who realizes the time relationship between the Mongol invasion of Russia and the Renaissance period in Western Europe has a basis for understanding the differences in later cultural developments in the two regions.

In the same way, a person with adequately developed time concepts examines contemporaneous events in domestic economic, cultural, and political life to better understand a nation's behavior in international affairs. He sees the relation of economic conditions to domestic political decisions, or of cultural trends to technological developments.

DEVELOPING TIME CONCEPTS

Relatively little research evidence is available to show how children and young people develop an understanding of time and chronology. The conclusions from which teachers must work grow out of observation of how children and youth seem to perform, at various levels of maturity, with regard to each of the aspects of time concepts discussed above. On the basis of such incomplete and empirical evidence, a number of ideas about teaching time and chronology have come to be generally accepted.

There seems to be a close relation between chronological age and the development of time concepts, and an even closer relation between mental age and the understanding of time. It also seems obvious that the amount of specific information related to time systems and chronology of events that a person commands has a bearing on his understanding of time and chronology.

Most investigators have concluded that maturation is a leading factor in the individual's development of time concepts. The very young child cannot distinguish between present, past, and future. As he reaches early childhood he has begun to differentiate present, past, and future events in his own life, but without much comprehension of how long ago a given event occurred or how long he must wait for one yet to come. He cannot give much time dimension to events that he learns about, but which are outside his own experience. His understanding of time, like his understanding in other areas, grows out of specific experiences. As the elementary school pupil gains a broader background of experience as a basis for vicarious learning, and as he develops ability to

handle more abstract ideas, he is able to push further in his understanding of time and chronology.

The limited research that has been done about the development of time concepts indicates that most children have little grasp of the conventional system of chronology until about the age of 11 or 12, and that, while it should be introduced, direct instruction about it has relatively little value before that age. Nor can most children establish time relations among events they have not themselves experienced until about the age of 11 or 12.

Older students in the upper-grades, junior high school, and senior high school years seem to become increasingly capable of understanding and using the conventional time system, of establishing time relations among events, and of comprehending the duration of periods of time, both within their own experience and in the history of mankind. Indeed, Friedman found that senior high school students showed as good a comprehension of selected time words as did adults who were tested (see *Selected Readings*). Other investigators have found that college students, as a group, demonstrate a better understanding of time concepts than do high school students as a group.

Students of the same chronological age vary in their understanding of time concepts, however, just as they vary in other aspects of learning. In general, the student of higher general intelligence progresses more rapidly in developing time concepts than those of average or lower ability, provided he has had opportunity to gain the necessary information about time and chronology.

Command of appropriate information is essential for the development of time concepts, just as information is needed to build other social studies understandings. For example, a child must learn the meaning of various time words and phrases in the same way that he builds a general vocabulary. He must understand facts about measurement of time in order to use the clock or calendar, or to place dated events in sequence. As the older student learns more about past events and periods of history, he has more information with which to interpret time references, both definite and indefinite. As he develops a fuller background of information about human affairs, he has more material to work with in establishing relationships among events and trends in history. But knowing facts does not automatically bring comprehension of time relationships. Direct instruction, in which the student applies the facts at his command, is needed if he is to develop adequate time concepts.

Studies comparing the understanding of time vocabulary demonstrated by groups of high school and college students have shown that the college students had a superior understanding of the words and phrases on which the two groups were tested. They have also shown that there was great variation in the adequacy of the responses among students in both groups. These studies reinforce the conclusion that maturity is an important factor in developing an understanding of chronology, but none of them has explored the extent to which the factors of general intelligence and command of information about historical events affected the better showing of the older students. In both of these latter factors the college students, as a group, must have been superior to the high school students.

TREATING TIME CONCEPTS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

A planned sequence of experiences is needed to develop a mature sense of historical time. It is clear, however, that the different aspects of time understanding do not develop one after the other on a ladder of increasing difficulty. It is impossible to assign one aspect, such as measurement of time, to be taught at one grade level, and another, such as time vocabulary, to the next.

Nevertheless, to be effective, the social studies teacher must help students build upon the understanding of time which they have developed earlier. Many secondary school teachers expect far too much from their pupils. More information about the level to which the typical elementary school pupil has progressed in this area should enable the secondary school teacher to teach time concepts more effectively.

By the sixth grade most pupils have developed some understanding of the basic system for measuring time. They distinguish between morning, afternoon, day, and night. They can tell time by the clock and understand such terms as *seconds*, *minutes*, *hours*, *days*, and *weeks*. But pupils are likely to have an imperfect grasp of many facets of time measurement, such as the relation of the earth's revolution around the sun to seasons in different parts of the world.

Most sixth-grade pupils will have acquired only the rudiments of the system of measuring time from the birth of Christ. In his study of the growth of time concepts, Friedman found that over 80 per cent of the sixth-graders whom he tested knew the general meaning of B.C. and A.D. However, less than 40 per cent could

place either A.D. or B.C. dates in the proper century, and only about 50 per cent could arrange a series of four mixed B.C. and A.D. dates in the proper chronological order.

Pupils entering junior high school will understand many words expressing time, but they will have an inadequate comprehension of most indefinite time words as well as many definite terms. Friedman found that only 8 per cent of the sixth-graders he tested knew the meaning of "generation," 50 per cent the meaning of "decade," and 78 per cent the meaning of P. M.

Although sixth-graders may know the arithmetic meaning of year, century, or decade, many have not developed a comprehension of the period of time described by these terms. They may state that a decade includes ten years without realizing that their entire life span consists of one decade plus one year. If they are told that the American Revolution lasted from 1775 to 1783, they may calculate "eight years" but not understand that the war lasted longer than they have attended school.

Sixth-graders have little sense of the passage of time. Although they may have been taught to figure the length of time between dates, they are unlikely to use this skill, particularly between dates covering long periods of time. As a result, even though they may have studied Old World Backgrounds or some American history, they are unlikely to possess any idea of the length of historical periods or eras nor the time span between past events and the present. As a consequence of this lack of time sense, sixth-graders cannot be expected to give much depth to such indefinite time phrases as "years ago," "centuries ago," or "ages ago."

TEACHING TIME CONCEPTS IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The secondary school teacher must recognize that, because of the various factors discussed above, the pupils in his class will have reached different levels in their understanding of time. To help them grow in their understanding and use of time and chronology, he must discover the degree of maturity each student has achieved and plan instruction accordingly.

DIAGNOSTIC AND REVIEW EXERCISES. Early in the school year the social studies teacher should administer diagnostic exercises to discover how fully his students have developed their understanding of various aspects of time concepts. He can use items such as those on pages 179-80. The results will indicate the areas in which review, reteaching, and further emphasis are needed. By using diagnostic exercises at intervals throughout the year, the teacher

can get some picture of student growth in understanding of time and chronology and of the effectiveness of his own teaching of time concepts.

A diagnostic exercise can serve both directly and indirectly as a basis for review and reteaching. As the student works through such an exercise, his attention is called to the importance of understanding time and chronology. He applies the time knowledge and skills at his command. When the exercise has been completed and corrected, it should be discussed by the students as a means of reviewing and reteaching the facts and processes it covers. Those items that were done incorrectly by many students can be considered by the entire class; those that were missed by a few can be discussed by the students concerned, meeting in subgroups. In the days and weeks that follow, aspects of time concepts in which students were weak can be emphasized in written assignments, class discussion, and specific exercises on time and chronology.

Various kinds of objective test items can be used in a diagnostic exercise to measure understanding of time concepts. Those selected should range from easy to difficult, in order to measure the level of understanding possessed by each student. The following examples suggest types of items that the teacher can construct; items involving historical content should be based on material that the pupils are studying. In assembling a diagnostic exercise, the teacher will probably group items of one type, such as multiple choice or completion, instead of organizing the exercise around concept areas.

VOCABULARY OF TIME

Multiple choice:

1. A decade is (1) 2 years, (2) 5 years, (3) 10 years, (4) 25 years, (5) 50 years.
2. The length of a generation is about (1) 25 years, (2) a third of a century, (3) half a century, (4) 75 years.
3. Biannual means: (1) once a year, (2) twice a year, (3) once every two years, (4) once every three years.

Completion:

In the blank indicate the date which the expression calls to your mind:

- | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. _____ years ago | 3. _____ ages ago |
| 2. _____ centuries ago | 4. _____ in the distant future |

MEASUREMENT OF TIME

Multiple choice:

1. 956 A.D. occurred during the (1) first century, (2) ninth century, (3) tenth century, (4) ninety-sixth century.
2. Which occurred first? (1) 44 A.D., (2) 1864 A.D., (3) 1215 A.D., (4) 1637 A.D.

3. Which occurred first? (1) 44 B.C., (2) 3000 B.C., (3) 1865 B.C., (4) 1607 B.C.
4. Which occurred first? (1) 695 B.C., (2) 796 A.D., (3) 258 B.C., (4) 159 A.D.
5. When it is 2 P.M. in the central standard time zone of the United States, in the eastern standard time zone it is (1) 3 P.M., (2) 4 P.M., (3) 1 P.M., (4) 12 noon.

SENSE OF PASSAGE OF TIME AND TIME RELATIONSHIPS

Multiple choice:

1. A decade covers a period only a few years longer than (1) I have lived, (2) I have gone to school, (3) my father has lived, (4) my grandfather has lived.
2. Which of the following was the longest? (1) the period of ancient history, (2) the period of medieval history, (3) the period of modern times, (4) the period of American history since the Revolutionary War.
3. Which of the following was the longest? (1) the American colonial period, (2) the period of the Revolutionary War, (3) the period of the United States as a nation prior to the Civil War, (4) the period of the United States as a nation since World War I.
4. Which occurred first? (1) Period of discovery and exploration, (2) medieval times, (3) Roman Empire, (4) period of Renaissance and Reformation.
5. Which occurred first? (1) the settlement of Jamestown, (2) the Revolutionary War, (3) Magellan's voyage around the world, (4) Washington's inauguration as president of the United States.

Time line exercises:

1. Constructing a time line.

Directions: The line below measures five inches. Use it to prepare a time line on which you place in relative position the following events:

- (1) The end of the Civil War (1865); (2) The Spanish-American War (1898); (3) The First World War (1914-1918); (4) The Second World War (1939-1945).

2. Reading a time line.

Directions: The time line which has been drawn on the chalkboard shows some of the important events in the period of the American Revolution. Study it, then answer each of the following questions in the space provided.

1. Which came first? (1) the alliance with France; (2) the victory of the American forces at Saratoga; (3) the Declaration of Independence.
2. How many years passed between the British surrender at Yorktown and the signing of the peace treaty between Great Britain and the United States?
3. What military events shown on the time line occurred between the time of the Declaration of Independence and the British surrender at Yorktown?

PIVOTAL AND CLUSTER DATES. A student can improve his understanding of the duration of periods of time, of chronology, and of time relationships by learning a few pivotal dates and relating other events to them. Such dates should mark notable events or the approximate beginning or end of an era. Most people use a similar device in their daily lives. For example, the college student may recall the year in which he began his first job because it followed his graduation from high school. Similarly, people learn to use certain historical dates as key dates around which other events center. Secession began in 1860. Without recalling specific dates, it is fairly easy to remember that Perry opened up trade with Japan and that stagecoach lines to the Pacific were operating only a few years prior to the Civil War. It is also easy to place a whole series of events such as the permanent installation of the Atlantic cable, the first telegraph line to the Pacific, and the first transcontinental railroad in the period soon after 1860.

The students and teacher together may select a few pivotal dates, or the teacher may choose a very limited number and invite students to add a few more. By limiting the total number of dates to be so treated, by involving students in their selection, and by using them repeatedly, time understandings can be deepened without developing the attitude that "history is nothing but dates."

When pivotal dates have been identified, students should learn them thoroughly, but only after they have studied and understood the significance of the event or period which each one represents. Frequent reference to these dates during discussions will help students learn them. In addition, the teacher can use straightforward drill, in limited amounts and at appropriate times, to help students fix the dates in their minds.

Various kinds of exercises can also be used to help students learn pivotal dates. Two exercises that are effective for teaching such dates to junior high school pupils follow.

Famous Dates Game. Students divide into groups of six or eight. Each group has a set of cards which has been prepared by students. Each card has the name of an era or an event on one side, and the appropriate date or dates on the other. The first player draws a card and shows one side of it to the student on his left. If the latter can name the event or date connected with what he sees, he wins the card. If he fails to do so, the next player has a chance, and so around the group. Then the second player draws a card and the game progresses. The object is to win the most cards.

A more complicated version of the game may be played with cards that list an event on one side, and the following information on the other: the date, the number of years from the date to the present, the number of

years from that date to some selected pivotal date, and another important event occurring on or about the same date. Although a player can win the card merely by giving the date, he loses it to any player who can add information which he cannot provide.

Baseball: Divide the class into two teams. The pitcher for one team pitches an event at a batter from the opposing team. If the batter names the correct date, he makes a one-base hit. Knowing the number of years from that date to the present constitutes a two-base hit, and computing the length of time elapsing between the date and another event mentioned by the pitcher amounts to a three-bagger. If, in addition, the batter can name some other event occurring in the same year, he makes a home run. A pupil on base can earn a run only if he is forced home by another batter of his own team. A batter who cannot name the correct date hits a fly ball. If a member of the opposing team can answer the question correctly, he catches the fly and the batter is out. If not, the batter can try again until he strikes out.

More mature students are likely to prefer quick oral or written drills which they know are for practice and not to affect their grades. Drill exercises such as the following may be mimeographed or dittoed for students to use, or the teacher may place them on the chalkboard.

Read the section on the Spanish-American War in your text. When you have completed your reading, work out exercise one, consulting your textbook if you need to do so.

Exercise one.

Directions: In the first line, write the date of the beginning of the Spanish-American War. Then fill in the other blanks, using "B" to show that an event occurred before the war and "A" to indicate that an event occurred after the war began.

- Date of the Spanish-American War
- The Open Door Policy in China
- The Cuban revolt against Spain
- The first Pan-American Congress
- The Hague Conferences
- The acquisition of the Philippine Islands
- Theodore Roosevelt became president of the United States
- William McKinley became president of the United States
- The building of the Panama Canal

Now reread quickly the chapter which precedes the account of the Spanish-American War and skim the one which follows. When you have done so, work through Exercise Two.

Exercise Two.

Directions: Write B(before) or A(after) in the blank before each item to indicate whether the event occurred before or after the Spanish-American War.

- The coal strike
- The establishment of the Interstate Commerce Commission

- The passage of the Clayton Anti-Trust Act
- The Pullman strike
- The organization of the American Federation of Labor
- The organization of the Standard Oil Trust
- The creation of the Forestry Service

What generalizations can you make about the United States at the turn of the century in relationship to the following topics: our position in world affairs? the growth of business? government regulation of private enterprises? labor-management relations?

In addition to learning pivotal dates, students should identify clusters of events within certain decades or centuries. For example, they can identify the beginnings of the industrial revolution with the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries; the progressive era in United States history with the first two decades of the twentieth century; or the New Deal legislative acts with the 1930's. Specific dates for individual inventions or laws need not be remembered, although they may be placed upon a classroom time line in order to see the cluster effect more clearly.

As the student proceeds through the secondary school years, the number of pivotal and cluster dates at his command should increase—and it will, provided the teacher at each grade level gives systematic attention to the use of such dates. For effective cumulative development in the use of pivotal dates, each social studies teacher must learn what dates have been emphasized in earlier grades and use them whenever they are appropriate to the content he is teaching. For optimum results, the social studies teachers of the school system should plan a minimum list of pivotal and cluster dates to be emphasized in each grade, limiting the number severely. The students and teacher of a particular class may decide to enlarge the minimum list if they consider additions desirable. The minimum list, however, should provide a basis for cumulative experience in using pivotal and cluster dates.

TIME LINES. Time lines are useful for teaching many aspects of time understandings. By encouraging pupils to think of time graphically, time lines help them establish the sequence of events, compare the length of historical periods, develop the vocabulary of time, and relate important events in one country with those that occurred contemporaneously in other parts of the world.

If time lines are to be useful as teaching devices, pupils must be able to interpret them. Many junior high school pupils and even senior high school students cannot do so, although they have seen time lines in their textbooks and classrooms.

An effective way of teaching junior high school pupils to in-

interpret time lines, or of reviewing this skill, is to have each one make a time line of the important events in his own life. On it he can show events such as entering elementary school, taking a long trip, moving from one place to another with his family, and graduating from elementary school. Before making their time lines, pupils must learn or review the fact that a time line is drawn to scale, with each unit of space representing a certain number of years. Each student may choose between making a horizontal or a vertical time line, or one that slants upward. In most classes at least one example of each type will be produced. When the finished time lines are compared and explained, all pupils will have become acquainted with each of the three kinds. As a next step students can place their own life period on a time line that covers a century, and add a few major events in United States history. Following this, the teacher can give other assignments involving historical events and longer periods of time. Students can draw time lines in their notebooks or on the chalkboard. A large time line can be constructed across one side of the classroom by using clothespins to attach small cards to a rope or wire that has been fastened along the top edge of the chalkboard.

Senior high school students should review the use of time lines and improve their ability to interpret them through more sophisticated assignments. Early in the year, students can discuss the meaning of a time line that appears in their textbook or has been placed on the chalkboard. The time line chosen should contain content related to the current unit of work. Or students may complete a written exercise, such as that given on page 180, made up of questions that can be answered by reading the assigned time line. As a follow-up assignment, each student should construct a time line to show a sequence of events that the class is studying. The teacher can point out how students may use time lines to review at the end of a chronological history unit, or to show sequence of events related to a particular topic they are studying, such as the expansion of political democracy in the United States.

Throughout the year's work, students should continue to use the time lines that are provided in textbooks and to make their own time line records of sequences of events. Some time lines should be saved and compared with those developed in later units of work.

Time lines are helpful in reviewing and deepening an understanding of the conventional system of chronology and of various terms. The teacher can illustrate the system of chronology by drawing a long line on the chalkboard to represent historic time, and placing a cross-mark at the appropriate point to represent the birth

of Christ. He can then mark in the centuries A.D. and B.C., working forwards and backwards from the birth of Christ. Dates should be added, for example, 44 B.C., 230 B.C., 44 A.D., and 230 A.D. This graphic representation will help students understand and remember that the larger the number B.C., the earlier the date occurred, while the reverse is true in the A.D. time period. It will also help students understand why 230 A.D. is in the third century, not the second, and why the third decade of a century is the period of the twenties and not the thirties.

Time lines are useful for teaching and reviewing pivotal and cluster dates. Pivotal dates can be placed on every time line that covers the period in which they occur, and the other events that are located on the time line can be related to them. Cluster dates can be emphasized by making a detailed time line of the period involved and showing on it the several events, inventions, or other developments that cluster about a key date, decade, or century.

Time lines enable pupils to develop a better understanding of the length of historical periods. One study has shown that a sense of the passage of historical time develops somewhat differently than does a sense of the passage of time in an individual's personal life. If a person is very busy, engaging in many activities during a certain period of time, this period seems short; if he has few things to do, the time seems long. On the other hand, pupils who study many events about a period usually assume that the period lasted a long time; if they study few events in a period, such as the Middle Ages, the period seems short to them. To avoid developing misconceptions about the length of periods, particularly those which the class studies only briefly and sketchily, the teacher should have pupils use time lines, comparing these periods with others which they have studied.

Parallel time lines are useful for showing time relationships among developments within a country. Senior high school students can gain a better understanding of United States history by making four parallel time lines on which they record key events in domestic political life, economic developments, social conditions and reforms, and the nation's international relations. Or a more specific topic can be treated. For example, developments in labor-management relations can be illustrated by parallel time lines showing events in the growth of big business, of labor unions, and of the concept of collective bargaining.

Charts consisting of multiple time lines are valuable tools for helping the student develop the comprehensive mental time framework needed to study relationships among contemporaneous events

that occur in various parts of the world. Events in United States history may be placed on one time line, while other lines may show selected major developments in Western Europe, in the USSR, and in the Far East. This device can help the student of United States history see his own country's growth in a world-wide perspective. It can help the student of world history gain a deeper understanding of the crosscurrents of world politics, economic affairs, and cultural life and of the interdependence of peoples in the modern world.

If time lines are to be effective as teaching tools, a number of requirements must be met. Once the teacher is certain that pupils can interpret them correctly, he should use them frequently, for time concepts are developed through many exposures. However, time lines must always be used for a clearly defined purpose which is related to the class's current work. Studying or constructing a time line is worth the time of pupil and teacher only if the activity helps the student understand and retain significant information or ideas.

INCREASING TIME UNDERSTANDINGS. Systematic attention to the development of time concepts is needed in every secondary school social studies course, but this does not mean that the teacher should plan "units" on time and chronology. Rather, whenever appropriate to the content, instruction should be woven into every block of work that the class studies. In planning each unit, the teacher should consider what opportunities can be made to reinforce, deepen, and expand the students' understanding of the measurement of time, of the vocabulary of time, and of time relationships, and of his sense of the passage of time.

In planning courses and units which draw heavily on geographic content, the teacher should be alert for opportunities to reinforce and expand students' understanding of the geographic basis for the measurement of time. While pupils will have studied in the elementary school the relation of the earth's rotation to day and night, and the relation of its revolution around the sun to seasonal change, most of them need to review or restudy this material in their junior high school years—especially as it affects the Southern hemisphere. Most junior and senior high school students also need to review facts about time zones and the international date line.

In planning courses and units that use historical content, whether history courses or other social studies courses in which historical material is drawn upon for background, the teacher should be alert for opportunities to:

1. Review or teach words and phrases from the vocabulary of

time, as these are needed in class study. Students should learn to use indefinite expressions of time and chronology, interpreting them within the context in which they read or hear them. They should enlarge their vocabulary to include such advanced yet basic terms as era, age, dynasty, preindustrial, postrevolutionary, biennial, and semiannual. The devices for vocabulary development which are listed in Chapter 9 can be adapted to time concepts.

2. Reinforce the pupil's understanding of the conventional system of chronology through explanation and the use of time lines and test exercises. World history courses, especially, offer many opportunities for such discussions and exercises. In world history courses there is also opportunity for pupils to study the history of the calendar that is used today, and to learn about other systems that have been used to measure time.

3. Deepen the pupil's sense of the passage of time and his comprehension of the duration of specific periods of time by frequent comparisons of the length of historical periods that he studies. The teacher may ask a student to compare the length of time involved in an historical episode with a similar period of time in his own life. For example, a world history student in the tenth grade can compare the length of World War II with the span of time that has passed since he was in the fourth grade. Or he can think of the period from the beginning of the French Revolution to the Congress of Vienna as being more than twice as long as he has been going to school. In the United States history classes, the student may develop similar comparisons for such episodes as the period of heavy migration on the Oregon Trail, the War of the American Revolution, and so on. Each student may make a bar chart comparing the length of his life with the length of a decade, a generation, a century, and selected historical periods. He may be asked to compare the duration of American history with historic times, that of historic time with man's life on earth.

In all secondary school social studies courses, the teacher should seek to:

1. Develop and reinforce the student's comprehensive time framework, so that he is aware of contemporaneous developments in various parts of the world. The teacher can weave into class discussions frequent references to such developments, and he can use parallel time lines and other devices suggested in this chapter.

2. Stress concepts of change and continuity in human affairs and in social institutions, by helping students understand time relationships among events. In their study of a historical period, the historical background of a social problem, or the culture of

a geographic region, students should be led to see that as changes take place, new problems arise which in turn institute further change. At the same time, students should comprehend the fact of cultural continuity. Just as new problems arise out of old, so do effective solutions for problems have their roots in the past.

Students develop and deepen their understanding of time concepts slowly during their years in the secondary school. The amount and rate of their progress will depend to a great extent on the amount and nature of specific attention given to time concepts in their social studies work. A teacher can provide students with a great deal of help within a one-year course. Each social studies teacher can and should stress appropriately selected aspects of time concepts, whether he is teaching history, geography, economics, civics, or social problems. Students will attain maximum growth in time understandings, however, only if the social studies teachers in the particular school system plan together for cumulative instruction in concepts of time and chronology.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

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Reports a study showing that college students are confused about our basic system of chronology.

FLICKINGER, ALICE, and REHAGE, KENNETH. "Building Time and Place Concepts," in Edith West (ed.), *Improving the Teaching of World History*, Twentieth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1949. Pp. 107-16.

Reviews the research on the development of time concepts and makes suggestions for teaching certain aspects of a time sense.

FRIEDMAN, KOPPLE C. "The Growth of Time Concepts," *Social Education*, 8 (January, 1944), 29-30.

Summarizes findings from a study of concepts known by those of different age levels.

PISTON, FREDERICK. "How Time Concepts Are Acquired by Children," *Educational Method*, 20 (November, 1940), 107-12.

Describes interesting experiment showing the importance of maturation in the development of time concepts of sixth-graders.

SCHINDLER, ALVIN W., and others. "Developing A Sense of Time and Chronology," in Helen Carpenter (ed.), *Skills in the Social Studies*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1953. Pp. 198-225.

Analyzes the aspects of a time sense and describes ways of developing them at the various school levels.

BOOKS AND DISSERTATIONS

WESLEY, EDGAR B., and WRONSKI, STANLEY P. *Teaching Social Studies in High Schools*, 4th ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1958. Pp. 437-46.

Includes specific suggestions for teaching concepts.

WILMETH, JOHN RICHARD. "An Experiment in Teaching Time Relations in Junior High School American History," Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Cornell University, 1943. (Obtainable on interlibrary loan.)

A fascinating study which includes novel suggestions for diagnosing and teaching time concepts.

GEOGRAPHIC UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS

Basic to an understanding of human affairs and problems is a grasp of man's relationship to his physical and cultural environment. Each specific event or situation must be interpreted in relation to its geographic setting. To know why Jefferson sent envoys on the mission that resulted in the Louisiana Purchase, for example, a person must understand the physical location of the settlers in the Ohio Valley—the mountain barriers to transporting goods eastward, the fact that the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, as water highways, flowed west and south to New Orleans, at that time in French hands. In more recent times, the British wasted enormous sums attempting to develop peanut plantations in Tanganyika, providing a negative indication of the need to relate human activities to the realities of physical environment. Individual citizens do not, of course, make single-handed decisions about enterprises so large as these. Nevertheless, they need to apply geographic understandings and skills almost daily, both in their personal lives and in meeting their obligation to be adequately informed about public affairs and policies. The social studies teacher has an obligation to help each student develop and apply these skills and understandings.

ASPECTS OF GEOGRAPHIC UNDERSTANDINGS AND SKILLS

The individual who has an adequate command of geographic understandings and skills exhibits at least six related characteristics. He has a sense of direction. He possesses a sense of relative

distance and area. He understands and uses a basic geographic vocabulary. He is able to obtain information from maps and globes and draw inferences from the data presented on them. One of the tools that he carries in his mind is a set of map images, visualizations of various continents and regions of the world, that he can call up as he needs them for understanding locations or other geographic data. He understands man-earth relationships, including the relation of political, economic, and cultural patterns to the physical setting in which they have developed.

SENSE OF DIRECTION. The person with a sense of direction can locate himself with reference to the cardinal and intermediate directions, set a directional course, and follow it. To do so in actual travel he must be able to use known landmarks as orientation points and, when necessary, to determine cardinal directions by the sun, the stars, or a compass. To comprehend directional locations of faraway places, he must be able to read maps and globes and sense the directional relationship of specific places to his own location. He will know almost automatically in what direction from his home a number of key cities or regions in his own country and in other parts of the world are located. Thus Chicago, the Rocky Mountains, London, Capetown, and Shanghai, for example, will become reference points for him to use in comprehending directional locations of unfamiliar places.

SENSE OF RELATIVE DISTANCE AND AREA. To understand distance a person must know basic linear units, such as inch, foot, yard, and mile. He must be able to use these units to understand and work with scales on maps and globes. Equally important, a person must gain a sense of the space covered by a mile, ten miles, *a hundred miles, a thousand miles, and so on*. He must be aware of the time it takes to walk a mile, for example, and to travel longer distances by conventional means of transportation. He must be able to comprehend and compare various distances.

To understand area a person must be able to visualize and compare the size of various regions or other spatial divisions. He needs to develop a realization of the expanse of an acre, a square mile, a thousand square miles, and so on, by learning the areas of familiar spatial divisions such as a football field, his own community or a section of it, his home state, and his nation. If he can visualize the expanse of familiar areas, he can use these visualizations to interpret what he learns about the area of regions and countries that he does not know through direct experience.

GEOGRAPHIC VOCABULARY. The vocabulary of geography in-

cludes words representing distance, area, and direction, such as those used in the preceding paragraphs. It includes terms that describe physical features of the landscape, such as river, ocean, continent, mountain, and plain. It includes terms that describe climatic conditions, such as hot, cold, dry, humid, and continental. It also includes terms that describe cultural features of the landscapes, such as dock, canal, city, mine, and highway.

The person with an adequately developed geographic vocabulary is able not only to recognize such terms but also to visualize the feature or comprehend the condition represented by each one. He must be able to call up several images for most geographic terms, such as mountain, river, or city, and select the one that is appropriate to the situation at hand. The correct image for "mountain," for example, will vary depending on whether he is thinking of the Alps, the Appalachians, the Rockies, or the Apennines.

MAP INTERPRETATION. Thousands of items of information concerning landforms, elevation, climate, population, mineral resources, and production can be condensed and presented on a map or a globe. If he can interpret the data thus presented, a person can identify patterns of climate, population distribution, production of agricultural goods, and so on, and draw inferences about relationships among the patterns. In order to do so, however, he must have developed the skills required to read maps and globes as adjuncts to good textual material.

A person must understand and be able to use various systems of map grids, if he is to read maps and globes effectively. The most important of the grid systems is the network of latitude and longitude lines that man has devised in order to map the earth, establish directions, develop an astronomical time system, and identify locations. Other kinds of grids, involving marginal letters and numbers, are employed on maps to facilitate quick location of specific places.

The ability to understand and apply scales is basic to effective interpretation of maps and globes. There are three types of commonly used scales: the linear or graphic scale, such as a line marked off to represent two miles; the statement scale, such as "one inch equals two miles"; and the representative fraction scale, such as $1/125,000$. In addition to using scales to compute distances from one location to another, the skilled map-reader calls his sense of distance into play in order to comprehend the relative distances that are involved. For example, he compares the distance from London to Paris or from Los Angeles to Seattle with the distance between two points that are known to him.

To read maps and globes, a person must be able to interpret map symbols, which vary in difficulty from simple pictorial representations to abstract dots, shadings, or isolines (lines connecting points of equal value). This ability is related to knowledge of geographic vocabulary, for the reader must be able to recognize the symbols and visualize the features they represent. For example, he must recognize contour lines and use them to help him picture the shape, height, and slope of terrain features.

The skilled map-reader identifies relationships among the data shown on a map, or a series of maps, and is able to generalize from them, or draw inferences about them. To understand land use in a region, for example, he may compare maps of the area showing natural vegetation, soils, rainfall, temperature, elevation, relief, mineral resources, population distribution, and transportation routes.

To interpret maps accurately, the reader must have some knowledge of map projections. He must understand that the globe is the most nearly accurate representation of the earth, and that every flat map distorts distances or areas, or both, to some extent. Each projection has its particular accuracies and distortions and hence its particular uses or disadvantages. The Mercator projection, for example, shows the shape of landforms with relative accuracy, but distorts area. An equal-area projection distorts shapes, but shows areas in their correct proportions. An important aspect of map-reading skill is the ability to recognize distortions and to realize why the projection chosen is the most useful for the purpose.

MAP VISUALIZATIONS. The individual with well-developed geographic skills is able to call up visual images of map patterns of his community, state, and nation, and of other parts of the world. When he encounters reference to a country or a major city in conversation or in reading, he is able to visualize the configuration of the appropriate continent and place the country or city in it at least approximately. The map he visualizes is probably highly simplified, but it will contain the outstanding physical features, major political divisions and so on. His visualization of the map of his own community, state, and nation is likely to be more complete than that for a less familiar part of the earth.

MAN-EARTH RELATIONSHIPS. The person with adequately developed geographic concepts recognizes the complexity of man-earth relationships, and their evolutionary character. He understands, for example, that both cultural and physical factors must be considered in studying the natural resources of an area, since the technical knowledge and skill of a people determine what resources can be used. The individual who has gained an adequate

understanding of man-earth relationships continually revises his picture of various regions and of specific locations in the light of current information about them.

INTRODUCING GEOGRAPHIC LEARNING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

There is a generally accepted pattern for the teaching of geographic skills and concepts in the elementary school, as a study of social studies curriculum bulletins and textbooks will indicate.

The instruction begins in the kindergarten and primary grades with readiness experiences, such as observing the different positions of the sun in the sky at different times of day, keeping weather records, and drawing large "maps" of the classroom, the school grounds and the school neighborhood. Beginning in the third grade and continuing through the intermediate years, the child is given systematic instruction in geographic skills. He also studies something of the geography of his community, his home state, his nation, and other countries of the world.

The amount and the quality of geographic instruction that is actually given, however, varies enormously from school to school as does that concerning other aspects of social studies. Even if the instruction were of a uniformly high quality, children would enter the junior high school possessing different levels of understanding and skill, since each person develops at his own rate in geographic learnings as in others. Nevertheless, it is possible to identify the kinds of skills and information about geography that most pupils will have been exposed to by the time they complete the sixth grade. Knowing of these, the secondary school teacher has a basis for planning review, reteaching, and advanced instruction to develop geographic understanding and skills. Indeed, he may gain clues as to the kinds of remedial experiences he can provide to help junior and senior high school students correct misconceptions and gain more adequate grasp of geographic learnings.

Children may enter school with little or no sense of direction. They will be introduced to the cardinal directions in the primary grades, and learn to identify them in relation to the position of the sun. They learn to orient themselves as to directions by using local landmarks, as well as the sun's position. In the intermediate grades, children learn to use the compass and they come to know the direction of various regions, countries, and continents from their home community.

In the course of their elementary school experience, most chil-

dren develop some sense of distance. In the early grades, for example, they learn to count the blocks they must travel from home to school. Later they may time themselves as they walk a half mile or a mile, in order to learn something of distance as related to time. They probably learn how many of their city's blocks comprise a mile. As they study their community and state in the third or fourth grade, they probably discover the places that are located within five or ten miles of their school or within a hundred miles of their city. During their elementary school years many of them take trips with their families. Teachers probably ask them to note distances for comparison with distances they encounter in reading or map study. In the middle grades, pupils probably are taught the number of acres in the school grounds or some other familiar area.

The development of a geographic vocabulary also begins with readiness experiences in the kindergarten and primary grades. In their early school years children learn to describe the day's weather and develop an understanding of the march of the seasons. They learn to use correct labels for physical features of the surrounding countryside. They go on walks and short trips to see landscape features in their neighborhood, learning to relate such terms as hill, valley, river, and plain to the landforms which they describe. Later they learn the names of continents, oceans, and some of the major rivers of the world. In the intermediate grades most pupils study climatic regions, physical features, and aspects of the economy geography of selected regions and countries. By the time they have finished the sixth grade, most pupils will have been introduced to such geographic terms as those on page 196, in addition to the names of the seasons, the cardinal and intermediate directions, and the continents and leading countries.

For most geographic terms, sixth-grade children will have inadequately developed concepts. They may, for example, have only one or two visual images for "mountain" or "plain." They are likely to have an inadequate understanding of latitude and longitude. Nevertheless, most children have begun to develop a geographic vocabulary by the time they enter the junior high school.

From their first primary-school year, children have some acquaintance with maps and globes. Probably they map their school-room, their playground, the school grounds, the local neighborhood, and the trips they take. The first "maps" are arranged on the floor, probably with blocks or models standing for the objects that are to be represented, and are oriented to the north. Later the maps may be drawn with pictorial symbols on large sheets of paper laid on the floor, and then hung on the north wall of the classroom.

cold	land	peninsula	latitude
hot	water	gulf	longitude
wind	hill	bay	parallel
sunshine	mountain	ice field	meridian
cloud	valley	glacier	equator
rain	plateau	erosion	tropic line
snow	uplands	drainage	rotation
frost	highlands	river	revolution
dew	elevation	tributary	tides
air pressure	lowlands	irrigation	tropical
cold front	plain	conservation	subtropical
warm front	prairie	natural resources	polar
prevailing winds	tundra	raw materials	ocean currents
storm	forest	community	port
blizzard	desert	city	dam
tornado	soil	country	water power
hurricane	ocean	state	industry
evaporation	lake	nation	agriculture
condensation	continent	map	trade center
precipitation	island	globe	

Jigsaw-puzzle maps are often found in the activity equipment of the primary classroom. The idea of scale is introduced, even with the floor maps, although the use of exact scale must wait on the development of mathematical concepts. Meanwhile the children become acquainted with simple globes showing continents, water bodies, the poles, and the equator. They learn that the globe is a model of the earth.

In the intermediate grades, pupils are given direct instruction in reading and using maps and globes. They learn that the earth, represented by the globe, rotates on its imaginary axis, the ends of which are the poles. They learn that, no matter from what direction a person may look at the globe, the North Pole is always toward the north and the South Pole is always toward the south. Gradually they are introduced to the latitude-longitude grid. At first the grid lines are referred to as east-west and north-south lines. By the end of the sixth grade, pupils should have learned to speak of parallels, meridians, latitude, and longitude instead of east-west and north-south lines. The junior high school teacher should not be surprised, however, if pupils revert at times to the earlier terminology.

By the completion of the sixth grade, pupils will have been introduced to graphic and statement scales, and will have had practice in applying scale to the reading of distances on maps and globes. They will have made product maps of various regions and countries, pasting pictures or specimens of products in appropriate places. Most sixth-grade pupils will have developed some comprehension

of simple map symbols, including the use of color layers to represent elevation. Many will have made rough relief maps, to help understand physical maps. They will have drawn sketch maps and carried out other exercises to help them visualize basic map patterns. They will probably have begun to compare various kinds of maps of an area—for example, a resource map, a population map, and a transportation map—in order to draw inferences about man's use of the region's resources.

The typical elementary-school social studies program also begins the development of such generalizations about man-earth relationships as the following:

1. Men carry on more activities on the plains than in hilly lands; they carry on more activities in hilly lands than in the mountains.
2. As man uses the land to make his living, he makes changes in it; some are good, and some harmful.
3. Primitive people get their food, clothing, and shelter from the earth directly around them. They make no lasting changes in the land or water of the earth.
4. People who live in modern ways get their living from the whole world. As they use the earth, they make changes in the land and water.
5. Population refers to the number of people living in an area. In some areas there are no people at all; in other areas, there are few people for the size of the area; and in still other areas there are so many people that they live very close together, as in a large city.
6. Cities are of different kinds; some are chiefly lumbering towns, mining towns, manufacturing cities, cities of trade, capital cities, and resort cities, and others are great cities which have many functions.
7. Raw materials are materials just as they come from the earth or from plants and animals that live on the earth.
8. Manufacturing refers to the making of raw materials into useful articles. A factory is a building in which manufacturing is done. In factories machines are used to save men work and to do work quickly.
9. Many factories are built in places where there are markets for factory goods, where raw materials can be obtained from farms, mines, or forests, where there are good transportation lines, and where there are enough good workers.
10. If we waste our resources, others who do not have these resources and still others who come after us will have to do without.¹

¹ See Preston E. James, ed., *New Viewpoints in Geography*, Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1959) pp. 118-43, for the complete list from which these were selected.

DEVELOPING GEOGRAPHIC LEARNINGS IN SECONDARY SCHOOL

It is clear from the foregoing description that by the time pupils enter the seventh grade they have been exposed to many aspects of geographic skills and concepts, at least on a simple level. The social studies teacher must understand, however, that most pupils will not have command of all that was taught and some will need intensive review and reteaching of geographic material that was presented to them in the elementary grades. For example, one study of the results of the Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills revealed that one-fourth of the eighth-graders could not tell directions on maps, one-third could not use the scale, almost two-thirds did not understand latitude and longitude, and over half could not interpret information about rivers. Even the student who comes to the junior high school with some command of elementary geographic skills and concepts will soon lose them unless he reinforces his earlier learnings through review and application of them, and he needs to expand these learnings through continued study. Experienced teachers will testify that many senior high school students need further review and reteaching of elementary geographic materials, and that all students need advanced study of geographic concepts.

The junior or senior high school social studies teacher, therefore, has an obligation to discover his pupils' levels of achievement in geographic learnings and to provide both remedial and advanced instruction.

USING DIAGNOSTIC AND REVIEW EXERCISES. Early in the school year the teacher may have his students complete diagnostic exercises in order to identify their levels of performance in handling geographic materials. For a continuing check on student progress, he may administer such exercises from time to time throughout the year. These exercises can serve as a basis for review and reteaching as well as for diagnosis.

Most standardized tests of social studies skills, such as those listed in *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook* (see *Selected Readings*, Chapter 16), include map reading and other aspects of geographic skills. Whether or not one of these tests is used, the teacher should develop exercises based on the current work of the class. He may wish to use a list of skills, terms, and concepts that are taught in the elementary school as another basis for building diagnostic exercises, selecting for a specific exercise those that can be tied into the class study of the moment. Items such as those

suggested below can be used with wall maps, maps in textbooks or the classroom newspaper, or with duplicated outline maps. Some of the items in a diagnostic exercise should test the student's general understanding of spatial relationships and geographic concepts. In building and using the exercises, the teacher may apply the suggestions given on page 179 concerning diagnostic and review exercises.

SENSE OF DIRECTION AND DISTANCE

Multiple choice:

1. In what direction is the front wall of this room? (1) north, (2) south, (3) east, (4) west.
2. If you are outside at noon, facing your shadow, south is: (1) in front of you, (2) behind you, (3) to your right, (4) to your left.
3. The sun rises in the: (1) north, (2) south, (3) east, (4) west.
4. Approximately how many acres are there in a football field? (or another familiar area) (1) one, (2) four, (3) ten, (4) twenty-five.
5. Approximately how many blocks are there to a mile in your town? (1) three, (2) six, (3) twelve, (4) twenty.
6. Which is east of Chicago? (1) New York City, (2) Minneapolis, (3) Denver, (4) New Orleans.
7. Which is farthest west of Washington, D.C.? (1) Columbus, Ohio, (2) St. Louis, Missouri, (3) Denver, Colorado, (3) San Francisco, California.

Two-option items:

Consult the map on page 162 of your textbook to answer the following items. Place an X *before* each of the cities or states which is closer to the east than to the west coast of the United States. Place a Z *after* each one which is closer to Canada than to the southern boundary of the United States.

- | | | |
|-------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|
| ___1. Chicago___ | ___5. Indianapolis___ | ___9. Arkansas___ |
| ___2. New York___ | ___6. Washington, D.C.___ | ___10. Montana___ |
| ___3. Seattle___ | ___7. San Francisco___ | ___11. Ohio___ |
| ___4. Denver___ | ___8. Our Town___ | ___12. Colorado___ |

GEOGRAPHIC VOCABULARY

Multiple choice:

1. A line on a map or a globe that is drawn exactly half way between the north pole and the south pole is called (1) the Tropic of Cancer, (2) a meridian, (3) a line of longitude, (4) the equator.
2. The process of bringing water to crops through ditches or pipes is called (1) erosion, (2) irrigation, (3) drainage, (4) conservation.
3. Land that is level or gently rolling is known as (1) a plain, (2) a piedmont, (3) tundra, (4) continental.

Matching items may also be used to check understanding of geographic vocabulary. The teacher must make groups of items that are homogeneous—that is, terms relating to climate should be in one group, those concerned with land forms in another, and so on.

Both multiple choice and matching items for testing geographic vocabu-

lary may be based on pictures that are numbered and projected, displayed, or passed among the students. Students will be expected to associate each picture with the appropriate definition or term.

MAP-READING SKILLS

Multiple choice:

Consult the political-physical map on page 276 of your textbook to answer the following questions:

1. The city which is located near 30°N 90°W is (1) Washington, D.C., (2) Houston, Texas, (3) Memphis, Tennessee, (4) New Orleans, Louisiana. (reading latitude and longitude)
2. The direct distance from St. Louis, Missouri, to Chicago, Illinois is approximately (1) 150 miles, (1) 275 miles, (3) 400 miles, (4) 750 miles. (use of scale)
3. In which of these states is there land at 10,000 or more feet of elevation? (1) Colorado, (2) West Virginia, (3) Mississippi, (4) Nebraska. (use of map symbols)
4. In what general direction does the St. Lawrence River flow? (1) to the south, (2) to the south west, (3) to the north, (4) to the north east. (reading a physical map to determine direction of river flow)
5. In which state would you expect much of the land to be used for grazing rather than for raising crops? (1) Illinois, (2) Mississippi, (3) Iowa, (4) Wyoming. (land use in relation to elevation and landforms)

Completion items:

Consult the map on page 276 of your textbook to complete the following statements:

The source of the Mississippi is in the state of _____.

If you were aboard a Mississippi river steamer going upstream, you would be going in a generally _____ direction.

New Orleans is located at _____ latitude and _____ longitude.

What major city is located at approximately 38°N . latitude and 90°W . longitude? _____.

The straight line distance between Independence, Missouri and Astoria, Oregon is _____ miles. What reasons can you give for this being a shorter distance than that given in your text for the length of the Oregon trail?

In what elevation range does Santa Fe lie? _____.

Is it higher or lower than is Independence, Missouri? _____.

What three states are bounded most completely on the east by the Mississippi river? _____, _____, _____.

In what general direction would you have to be going to travel with the current on the Ohio River? _____.

MAP VISUALIZATIONS

Matching questions or multiple-choice items may be based on posted silhouettes of continents, countries, or states, with the pupil required to associate each silhouette with the name of the area shown.

Students may be asked to draw from memory rough sketch maps of continents, major countries, or states.

Students may be asked to read a paragraph about a continent, nation, or state, and on an outline map of the area discussed, locate three important items (a city, a river) mentioned in the paragraph.

MAN-EARTH RELATIONSHIPS

Multiple-choice items may be used to test pupil understanding of such man-earth relationships as factors in the growth of a city at a particular location, factors in the location of a transportation route and relation of natural resources to standard of living in a region. Other types of objective items, such as matching two-option response, and completion items may also be employed for this purpose.

DEVELOPING A SENSE OF DIRECTION. Most junior high school students have developed some sense of direction. Their chief need is for experiences to reinforce the understanding they already have. The social studies teacher, however, should check pupils' orientation to directions in the classroom and in the community. If necessary, he should teach them how to use local landmarks as orientation points. He should also check students' ability to tell directions by the sun, the North Star, and the compass. Review or reteaching of this skill may be necessary in junior high school classes, and with occasional senior high school pupils.

Secondary school students usually need practice in reading directions from maps. Even those who have developed this skill will profit from additional practice. The social studies teacher can introduce brief oral or written exercises in reading directions from maps as a part of current classwork. In world history or United States history, for example, students can be asked to trace the directions followed by trade routes, migrations, settlement patterns, and transportation lines. Study of current events provides many opportunities for reading directions from maps, and for reinforcing the student's sense of direction about important locations, such as cities, countries, and areas with important natural resources.

Such exercises will take little time or special preparation. If used at every appropriate point, however, they will provide students with practice in applying their understanding of direction and help them become habitually aware of relative locations.

DEVELOPING A SENSE OF DISTANCE AND AREA. The secondary school teacher may use many of the same techniques used by the elementary teacher to develop a sense of distance. When the need arises, pupils should be given the assignment of timing themselves as they walk a half mile or a mile. They should learn distances between selected cities in their vicinity, preferably ones they have

visited. They should learn the approximate distance across the United States from east to west and from north to south. The distances can be compared with distances in other countries and parts of the world they are studying.

At the junior high school level the concept of area, particularly of square miles and acres, should be emphasized. Students may walk around a square mile of city blocks, or mark out a square mile on the map of their city. They may learn the number of square miles encompassed in their own county, state, and nation. As each country or region is studied in geography or history, pupils should compare its size to that of an area they know. To facilitate comparisons between farm sizes in different parts of the world, students should get a clear picture of an acre. They may measure off an acre on the school football field or some other familiar area.

Comparisons of time distances should be emphasized at the secondary school level. In order to contrast travel time by air with travel time by boat, auto, or railroad, pupils may secure schedules from transportation companies. They may make charts or bar graphs comparing time required to travel a given distance by each means of transportation.

DEVELOPING GEOGRAPHIC VOCABULARY. The task of developing geographic vocabulary is endless. Students in secondary school social studies classes encounter new terms for which they must create visual images. The techniques used in the elementary school for teaching vocabulary should be applied, in a manner appropriate to the maturity of the students, in secondary social studies classes. Each time a new geographic term is introduced, or a familiar one is used with a new meaning, students should be helped to visualize the feature for which the term stands. The concept of erosion, for example, can be developed by observing fields that are eroded, or by examining still pictures or moving picture films that show eroded lands. Examples of various degrees and kinds of erosion should be studied so that the student will have a number of visualizations for the term and know that he must select the correct one for a given situation. Understanding of the term can be extended by discussing the causes and results of erosion, differences between erosion from water, wind, and other causes, and methods of preventing or minimizing erosion. Models and dioramas, along with first-hand observation and pictures, can be used to teach the meaning of many geographic terms.

Secondary school students must also develop fuller meanings for many of the geographic terms to which they were introduced

in the elementary school. A senior high school student may have only one or two visualizations for such terms as mountain pass, river valley, desert, or plain. By studying and comparing pictures of a number of the mountain passes or gaps that have been important in United States or world history, he will build a more adequate conception of the term. He must learn that when he encounters the term "desert," it may refer to one of several types of deserts, and he must ask himself such questions as these: "Is it a cold or hot desert? What kind of vegetation does it have? Which of the great deserts of the world is it most like? At what elevation is it located? In what climatic zone? What natural forces have created this desert?" The social studies teacher must be alert to identify misconceptions or lack of visual images for geographic terms, and to supply the concrete experiences needed to develop an adequate vocabulary.

TEACHING MAP AND GLOBE SKILLS. Almost all junior high school students need to review the global grid composed of parallels and meridians; most of them need considerable instruction and practice in using it. This review or restudy can be introduced by showing students a ball marked with an "X" and asking them to describe the location of "X". They will realize the usefulness, indeed the necessity, of having the grid in order to describe locations.

Secondary students should know these basic facts about a globe:

1. The globe is the most nearly accurate map of the earth but is on too small a scale to be used for many purposes.
2. The earth turns on an imaginary axis, the ends of which are the two poles.
3. The North Pole is always to the north, the South Pole to the south.
4. The equator is an imaginary line around the globe, midway between the poles.
5. The parallels are lines showing distances north and south of the equator, which is numbered 0° latitude. The distance from the equator is measured in the degrees of latitude north and south. The lower latitudes are nearer the equator while the higher latitudes are nearer the poles.
6. Parallels run due east and west and remain an equal distance apart from each other but *become smaller and smaller circles* as they approach the poles. Any locations on the same latitude are an equal distance from the equator. One degree of latitude anywhere on the globe, is equal to about 70 miles.
7. Meridians measure distance or degrees of longitude east and west of an arbitrary prime meridian which passes through Greenwich, in England. Degrees of longitude are numbered up to 180° east and west of Greenwich.

8. Meridians run due north and south. They are an equal distance apart only at the equator where one degree of longitude equals about 70 miles. The meridians come closer together until they meet at a point at each pole. Thus a degree of longitude is not the same all over the globe.
9. Meridians and parallels cross each other at right angles.

Most seventh- and eighth-grade students need many opportunities to examine the globe and many exercises involving its use, in order to comprehend and remember these facts. Paper and pencil exercises in which pupils find answers to specific questions may be used. A group of students may construct a globe on a beachball, putting on the grid and sketching on the continents and oceans. A film or filmstrip can be used to present or review information about the global grid. Repeated practice in using the global grid is essential if pupils are to carry this aspect of map-reading skill with them into adult life.

Students in both junior and senior high schools need practice in interpreting latitude and longitude as shown on flat maps. Pupils should learn that regardless of the placement of the parallels or meridians, whether they are straight or curved lines, they always show east-west or north-south direction. Repeated exercises in using latitude-longitude readings to locate places should be used.

Junior high school students may or may not have been introduced to atlases, and to the use of the index and atlas grid to locate places quickly. This skill should be reviewed or taught specifically as needed by the particular student group. Pupils should also learn to use other types of grids, such as those found on most road maps.

When he enters the seventh grade the pupil will probably be aware that flat maps cannot present so accurate a picture of the earth as the globe. The social studies teacher should help him to understand why this is true. One exercise that can be used for this purpose is to have the student cut a rubber ball in half and try to make each half lie flat on a table. He will find, of course, that this cannot be done without splitting and stretching the rubber. Or, using tracing paper, a student may trace the land features as shown on each gore of the classroom globe onto a paper gore. When he lays the paper gores out flat on a table so that they touch at the equator, he will see that it is impossible to get a continuous flat map. The teacher may also use one of the available films concerning map projections to demonstrate the reasons for the distortions in flat maps.

After such exercises, students should compare distances, shapes

of continents, and areas of land masses as shown on the globe and on various maps that are available in their textbooks or on the walls of the classrooms. From the globe or from a statistical reference book they can discover that Greenland is about one-ninth the size of South America, although it looks larger on a map drawn on the Mercator projection. Alaska is three times as large as Spain, but on an orthographic projection centered on London it looks about the same size. By comparing the shapes of continents on a globe and on a map drawn on an equal-area projection, the student can see how the shapes are distorted to keep the size of the land masses in proportion. In the senior high school, students should make a more careful study of the most commonly used map projections, in order to learn the specific uses and limitations of each. As a minimum, they should become acquainted with the Mercator, an orthographic, an equal-area, and a polar-centered projection.

The concept of a great circle route as the shortest distance between two points on the earth should be introduced in the junior high school by having pupils stretch a piece of string from one point to another on the globe. This exercise should be repeated whenever appropriate in the context of class study. Later, probably in the senior high school years, students may be given exercises in which they trace on the globe the great circle route between two points and then sketch it on flat maps of various projections. Such exercises will make clear that on most map projections a straight line does not mark the shortest or great circle route.

The interpretation and application of map scales need thorough review and additional teaching at the junior high school level, even though the pupil probably has been introduced to graphic and statement scales in the intermediate grades. As they work with maps on which a graphic scale is shown, pupils should be given practice (and instruction if need be) in transferring the map scale to a strip of cardboard or paper to make a "map ruler" that they can use to read distances on the map. For maps on which a statement scale is used, the teacher should assign exercises in which students use their rulers to read distances. The teacher must introduce the representative fraction scale to junior high school pupils, and review and reteach it in senior high school classes.

He can explain that a scale of $1/63,360$ means that one inch on the map represents 63,360 inches or one mile on land, or 1 inch = 1 mile. Then he should provide exercises in which pupils turn other representative fraction scales into statement scales, and use a ruler to read distances from the map. The teacher should regularly ask

students to compare distances they read from maps with the distance between two points that are familiar to them.

The student will enter the junior high school with some understanding of many semipictorial symbols, such as those used for rivers or mountains. He will probably have been introduced to a few non-pictorial symbols, such as dots representing population distribution or color bands representing elevation or rainfall. To review the simpler symbols and to introduce more advanced ones which will be new to the pupil, the teacher should use some of the same procedures that he employs to develop geographic vocabulary. He may show pictures of the landscape feature or the cultural phenomenon which a symbol represents. Aerial views are especially valuable in this connection. The teacher may also read a brief, vivid description of the thing for which the symbol stands. Students may prepare a bulletin board display, consisting of a map alongside which are placed pictures illustrating the various symbols used on the map; a ribbon may be stretched from each picture to the symbol it illustrates. The teacher or group of students may also make sets of charts, each containing one map symbol and pictures to illustrate it. Such charts are commercially available; although designed for the intermediate grades, they are useful for teaching map symbols to junior high school classes and for review with older pupils.

Among the more complex non-pictorial symbols that should be introduced in the later junior high school or in the senior high school are various types of isolines. Isotherms, lines connecting points of the same temperature, and isobars, lines connecting points of equal barometric pressure, may be studied in connection with the reading of weather maps. Many newspapers publish a simplified form of weather map, based on that issued daily by the United States Weather Bureau, or the teacher may subscribe for the Bureau's map and post it each day.

Another type of isoline that should be presented in the senior high school, and to mature junior high school pupils, is the contour line which connects points of equal elevation. An effective way of introducing contour lines is to have pupils build a relief model of a hill that is shown on a contour map. They may make such a model from layers of corrugated cardboard, each layer representing one contour interval. To construct the model, students may follow these steps:

1. Enlarge the map of the hill by projecting it against a wall on which a sheet of paper has been hung, and tracing the contour lines.

2. Using carbon paper, trace each contour line on a separate piece of cardboard; as a guide for the pasting which will be done, also trace the next smaller contour line. Cut each piece of cardboard, following the outer contour line.
3. Paste the layers together, beginning with the base and fitting each piece into its exact position, until the "hill" has been built.
4. (Optional) Cover the cardboard model with a thin coating of map-fill; an easy one to make consists of wallpaper paste of the plastic type mixed with sawdust.

By comparing the model with the map from which it was made, the student can see that the contour lines indicate shape, elevation, and steepness of slope.

When they have gained an understanding of contour lines, students should be introduced to the inexpensive but invaluable United States Geological Survey topographical maps. They will begin with a map of their own region, if it has been mapped. They may take the maps with them on field trips, to identify the features that are shown on the map and note how contour lines show the terrain. Photographs may be taken for use in a bulletin board display, with a ribbon stretched from each picture to the appropriate location on the map.

Another aid in teaching pupils to read contour lines is the plastic map showing raised relief along with contour lines and other symbols of the USGS map. Such maps are commercially available. (See list of sources of maps, pp. 213-14.)

Map symbols should be reviewed and taught as they are encountered in the student's current assignments. Frequent brief exercises or demonstrations concerned with interpretation of map symbols that are part of a lesson will develop student understanding more effectively than a single full lesson devoted to such work.

Students should have frequent practice in comparing several maps of the same area, each map presenting a different pattern of geographical distribution or historical data. For example, pupils who are studying South America may note relationships between elevation, temperature, rainfall, and population density. They should be asked to draw inferences or state hypotheses about other features not shown on the maps. For example, after they have examined maps on soils, rainfall, temperature, and elevation, they may be asked what they think the vegetation pattern is probably like. Only after they have made such inferences, should they turn to a vegetation map or to textbooks to verify their hypotheses. At the beginning of a unit the procedure of having pupils use maps

to develop hypotheses about the region to be studied is likely to send them to textbook accounts with added interest.

Students should have practice in comparing map patterns in all social studies classes, not in geography classes only. In an American history class, pupils may be asked to correlate information from maps showing rivers, early canals and roads, and mountain barriers of the eastern part of the United States with maps showing patterns of westward settlement. Or they may compare two maps showing how senators from the various states voted on tariff bills in different time periods and they can read to find out why the senators from certain states shifted their position. A government class may compare a map of election returns for the most recent election with a map of per capita income by states (a map which they might have to make, using figures from the current *World Almanac*). In an economics class, the pupils may prepare and study a map showing tax income in different towns and cities in their county with one showing the number of children in school in such towns. They may compare the series of maps on farm tenancy in Lord and Lord, *Historical Atlas of the United States*. Students in sociology classes may be able to obtain from local welfare agencies maps of the local city showing delinquency rates, proportion of homes in need of repair, relief loads, fire losses in various districts, and the like. They may compare United States maps showing the percentage of Negro inhabitants with maps showing the degree of resistance to desegregation in the schools. The teacher who is geography-minded will perceive many opportunities to have students gain from maps information about current affairs and about other aspects of their social studies work.

Making maps is another method through which pupils can extend and deepen their skills of map interpretation. Senior high school students, using base maps of their home region, may make land-use maps. Both junior and senior high school pupils should gain experience in presenting on maps data that they obtain from statistical tables, written descriptions, and other maps. Using recent census figures or data from state agencies, for example, a student may show on one map the average per pupil expenditures for education in each state and, on a companion one, the median number of years of school completed by the people of each state. Another map that could be compared with the two mentioned would show the percentage of potential voters who cast their ballots in the most recent election. Students may use statistics to make historical maps, such as a series showing presidential election returns or per capita income by state over a period of time. They can select

data from several maps to combine on one. For example, a pupil may start with an outline map on which he indicates major physical features and then adds important transportation lines, and industrial centers. Assigned exercises in map-making should, of course, be based on material that is pertinent to the ongoing study of the class.

DEVELOPING MAP VISUALIZATIONS. Students entering the seventh grade can probably call up a general image of the shape of each of the continents, and of the United States. During their years in the secondary school they should develop more precise visualizations of these basic maps and expand their mental libraries of map images to include the major countries of the world. The social studies teacher can help them to do so by providing repeated exposures to maps as a part of the day-to-day classwork and by administering many brief exercises in map recall. One teacher of junior high school pupils made large flash cards on which the various continents and important countries were shown in silhouette, and used the cards frequently for brief drills to check his students' ability to recognize the area shown on each card. He also arranged with the industrial arts teacher for some of the students to make jigsaw-puzzle maps which became part of the classroom equipment for pupil use. A variety of games and exercises can be developed with such materials.

Drawing sketch maps, a kind of exercise that has been neglected in both elementary and secondary schools in the United States, can help students develop map visualizations. At appropriate points in class study, students may draw from memory an outline map of the country or continent they are studying and then compare their sketch with an accurate map of the area, and correct their own sketch. Such an exercise takes little class time and need not be assigned a mark. After students have carried out a series of such exercises during a unit of work, however, their progress may be evaluated by a sketch-map question on the unit test. In other sketch-map exercises, students may consult textbook or wall maps as they sketch their own. The assignment may require pupils to combine information selected from two or more maps on their own sketch maps.

To develop more detailed map visualizations, the teacher or the pupils themselves may prepare a set of base maps of continents and major countries, using magic slates which can be purchased at a dime store. To do so, an accurate outline of the area is traced onto the slate and inked in on the plastic. These base maps may be used for short drills in which the pupil puts in rivers, mountain

ranges, important cities, or other locations. After he has checked the accuracy of the locations, the pupil can erase his marks by lifting the plastic sheet and the base map is ready to use again.

DEVELOPING UNDERSTANDING OF MAN-EARTH RELATIONSHIPS. Throughout every social studies course in the secondary school, there are opportunities to help students understand man's relationship to his physical environment. The teacher should be alert to utilize these opportunities in order to give expanded development to concepts such as those listed on page 197. He may use discussion, map-making assignments, and analysis of assigned readings and of audio-visual materials to help students identify ways in which man has utilized and been affected by his physical environment.

In treating man-earth relationships the teacher must be on guard against interpretations that arise from outmoded concepts of geographic determinism. Modern geographers point out that while the physical environment presents conditioning factors, man has reacted in different ways to these factors in various periods of history and in various regions of the earth. They point out too, that the cultural environment which a society builds for itself presents conditioning factors which affect the way man uses his physical environment. For example, people living in a given region have used its resources differently in various periods of time, and people of different cultures have used the same kinds of resources in quite different ways. Cultural factors, such as technological knowledge and transportation facilities, have played a major role in resource-use patterns. In the same way, both cultural and physical factors must be considered to understand the growth of cities in particular locations, regional specializations in particular industries, and other examples of man's use of his physical environment. Students must be helped to see that physical factors condition, but do not determine, man's activities in a particular region.

The continuing modifications that take place in man's relationship to his physical environment should also be stressed in every secondary school social studies course. A desert area may be transformed into productive farmland by the application of scientific knowledge. Or, conversely, erosion, a gradual climatic change, or the breakdown of a man-made irrigation system may turn a productive farming region into a semidesert. A country with little significance in world affairs may assume a considerable role as the result of the discovery of critical mineral resources or a shift in transportation routes caused by technological advances. Such

changes appear throughout history, and may be highlighted to develop the student's understanding of the changing nature of man-earth relationships.

EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

To develop geographic skills and understandings, the teacher must have access to a number of basic tools. The social studies teachers in a school should periodically make an inventory of the geographic tools that are available, list the additional ones that are needed, and plan how to obtain them. In evaluating the available equipment and in selecting or making additional items, the teacher should develop and apply definite standards, such as the following examples of criteria for evaluating wall maps:

1. How up-to-date is the map?
2. How easily can the map be read from the back of the room?
3. How clearly does a physical map show relief at various elevations?
4. Is a specialty map (as resource distribution) simple enough for students to understand?

Every social studies classroom should have a 16-inch or larger globe, and smaller globes should be available for individual and group work, especially in junior high school classes. It is desirable that there also be available, especially for junior high school classes, a slated globe showing only water and land masses. Although designed for elementary school use, the slated globe is invaluable for the many exercises junior high school classes need for review and application of map and globe skills and knowledge of locations.

A variety of wall maps is needed in every social studies classroom. Political-physical maps of the world and the United States should be standard permanent equipment. In addition, the teacher should have ready access to wall maps of each continent, examples of various map projections, plastic relief maps, historical maps, and specialty maps showing such geographic patterns as rainfall, temperature, natural vegetation, mineral resources, transportation, and population density. The exact list of maps a teacher should use will be determined by the course content he is presenting.

Atlases should be readily available for classroom use, as well as for student reference in completing assignments to be done outside of class. These should include a general atlas, an economic atlas, and historical atlases. A classroom set of inexpensive paper-backed atlases should also be available for student use in completing map-reading and map-making exercises.

Small outline maps for desk work by students can be purchased in quantities or can be duplicated from stencils prepared by the teacher. These should be available as they are needed for map exercises.

For student projects, large outline maps on a heavy paper are commercially available at a low price. Or students can make such a map by projecting an outline map on a wall where a large sheet of heavy paper has been fastened, and tracing the outlines. The teacher can use this same technique to make a stencil for putting an outline map on the chalkboard. When the outlines have been traced on a sheet of heavy paper, he should punch holes along the lines at intervals of one-half or three-quarters of an inch. He can then fasten the paper stencil to the chalkboard with scotch tape, tap gently over the holes with a chalky eraser, and remove the stencil to connect the chalk dots to form an outline map. The stencil can be rolled up and stored for future use.

The teacher should build a file of maps clipped from magazines or books and mounted for projection or for use on the bulletin board. He should also develop a collection of silhouette maps and of pictures and slides to use in teaching geographic vocabulary and map symbols.

The inventory of tools for geographic instruction should include statistical reference books. It should also include interesting books about various nations and regions of the world, and about various industries and occupations, as well as films and filmstrips dealing with these subjects.

Teaching geographic skills and understandings is a responsibility of the secondary school social studies teacher. To carry out this responsibility effectively, he must build on the geographic knowledge, understandings, and skills that pupils bring with them from the elementary school. He must use diagnostic measures to ascertain the level to which his pupils have developed these skills and understandings and plan his instruction accordingly. There are many opportunities in every secondary school social studies course to reinforce and expand map-reading skills, geographic vocabulary, understanding of man-earth relationships, and other aspects of geographic learnings, and many useful techniques for doing so. Students will achieve the greatest possible growth in this area when all the social studies teachers in the school system, from the primary grades through the senior high school, cooperate in a developmental program of geographic instruction.

SOURCES AND MATERIALS

GOVERNMENT MAPS AND AERIAL PHOTOS

United States Geological Survey, Department of Interior, Washington 25, D.C.

Produces the inexpensive United States Geological Survey topographical maps. West of the Mississippi, maps should be ordered from the Geological Survey, Federal Center, Denver, Colorado. They can also be purchased from commercial agents. Send for free index maps of any states in which you are interested. These index maps enable you to identify the quadrangles which you wish to order. Also send for the free index maps, "Status of Aerial Mosaics" and "Status of Aerial Photography." They show the areas of the United States for which there are aerial mosaics and aerial photographs, and they indicate the source from which these materials can be obtained. When ordering USGS maps, request the free folder describing the maps and their symbols. Also request a folder on the National Atlas of the United States.

Aeronautical Chart and Information Center, St. Louis, Missouri.

Produces World Aeronautical Charts. These large-scale maps are available for all parts of the world. They show physical and cultural features seen from the air. By fitting together sections of these maps, the teacher can make huge, inexpensive wall maps of small countries or different sections of the United States. Send for the Key to USAF World Aeronautical Chart Indexes and for Indexes 1-3; they are used to locate the numbers by which maps can be ordered.

COMMERCIAL SOURCES

SOURCES OF OUTLINE MAPS

Denoyer-Geppert Co., Chicago, Illinois. (Desk and wall)

A. B. Dick Co., Chicago, Illinois. (Stencil outline maps for making mimeograph copies)

Ditto, Incorporated, Chicago, Illinois. (*Ditto masters of both outline and historical maps*)

A. J. Nystrom and Co., Chicago, Illinois. (Desk and wall)

Rand McNally & Co., Chicago, Illinois. (Desk and wall)

SOURCES OF GLOBES, WALL MAPS, RELIEF MODELS, REALIA

Aero Service Corporation, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Wall relief maps. Relief models of 12 USGS quadrangles, each showing a different type of land form. A large "Geographical Terms Model" to illustrate different types of place concepts.

Bro-Dart Industries, Educational Division, Newark, New Jersey.

Raised relief work globes on which students can paint different patterns. Paint washes off in warm water. Small raised relief maps on which students can paint. Also washable.

George F. Cram Co., Inc., Indianapolis, Indiana.

Large wall maps and globes. Large tackboard current events map on which clippings can be posted.

Farquhar Transparent Globes, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Transparent globe which revolves inside a sphere showing sun and stars.
Transparent globe showing different continents. Globe map projection device.

C. S. Hammond & Co., Inc., New York, New York.

Large wall maps. Inflatable plastic globes.

A. J. Nystrom and Co., Chicago, Illinois.

Large wall maps including history series. Globes. Wall maps of patterns of different products. Set of "Map Symbols Pictured."

Rand McNally & Co., Chicago, Illinois.

Large wall maps, including sets of historical maps. Wall maps of specialty maps in *Goode's World Atlas*. Globes.

Ward's Natural Science Service Corporation, Rochester, New York.

Earth science models to show land forms. Plastic relief maps. Soil and mineral rock collections.

Weber Costello Co., Chicago Heights, Illinois.

Large wall maps. Globes.

USEFUL ATLASES

Atlas of the Arab World and the Middle East. New York: St. Martin's Press, Inc., 1960.

BARTHOLOMEW, JOHN (ed.). *The Columbus Atlas*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1953.

FOX, EDWARD W. (ed.). *Atlas of European History*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1957.

Goode's World Atlas. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 11th ed., 1960.

Hammond's Comparative World Atlas (paper). New York: C. S. Hammond & Co., Inc., 1957.

Historical Atlas (paper). New York: C. S. Hammond & Co., Inc., 1954.

LORD, CLIFFORD and ELIZABETH (eds.). *Historical Atlas of the United States*, rev. ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1953.

Oxford American Atlas. New York: Oxford University Press, 1951.

Oxford Economic Atlas of the World, paperback abridged ed. New York: Oxford University Press, 1955.

Oxford Economic Atlas for India and Ceylon. New York: Oxford University Press, 1953.

Oxford Regional Economic Atlas: The U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe. New York: Oxford University Press, 1956.

PALMER, R. R. (ed.). *Atlas of European History*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1957.

Prentice-Hall World Atlas. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958.

FILMSTRIPS ON MAPS AND GLOBES AND PLACE CONCEPTS

Learning to Use Maps. Set of 6 filmstrips. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica Filmstrips.

Introduction to Maps. Set of 5 filmstrips. Detroit: Jam Handy.

MAP-READING MANUALS

ANDERZON, MARIE LOUISE. *Steps in Map Reading*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1949.

FORSYTH, ELAINE. *Map Reading, A Series of Lessons for Use in the Junior High Schools*. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight & McKnight, 1944.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

- BURGESS, ALVIN V. "The Use of Maps in Developing Geographic Personalities," *Journal of Geography*, 40 (February, 1941), 57-64.

Describes use of a series of topical maps to develop an understanding of Australia's population distribution and economy. Although old, this article illustrates how to teach pupils to draw inferences from maps. The author urges the use of maps, rather than textbooks, to introduce units.

- "Geographic Number," special issue of *Education*, 77 (September, 1956). Pp. 64.

Valuable articles on using literature in geography classes and on identifying major generalizations around which to organize courses.

- KOHN, CLYDE, and others. "Interpreting Maps and Globes," in Helen Carpenter (ed.), *Skills in the Social Studies*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1953. Pp. 146-77.

Excellent descriptions of the different skills in map-reading and the levels at which they can be taught.

- PARKER, EDITH. "Pictures as Laboratory Material in Geography," *Education*, 64 (March, 1944), 434-37.

Suggests use of carefully selected pictures of a region as sources of information about physical characteristics, population density, climatic conditions, ways of making a living, levels of living, and problems facing the people of a region.

- SVEC, M. MELVINA. "Three Lessons in Mapping. Lesson I. Map Enlargement"; "Lesson II. Profiles from Maps," *Journal of Geography*, 53 (February, March, 1954). 60-64, 104-6.

Specific instructions for enlarging maps into wall maps, and for making profiles from contour maps in order to help pupils visualize the landscape represented by contour lines.

BOOKS

- BALCHIN, W. G. V., and RICHARDS, A. W. *Practical and Experimental Geography*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1952.

Gives instructions for constructing and using many types of models and other visual aids in teaching geography. Useful sections on land forms and relief maps.

- HARRIS, RUBY M. *The Rand McNally Handbook of Map and Globe Usage*. Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1959.

Sets up a developmental program for grades 1-12. Includes concrete teaching suggestions.

- JAMES, PRESTON E. (ed.). *New Viewpoints in Geography*, The Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1959.

Provides summaries of recent developments in different geographic fields plus suggestions for organizing and teaching geography courses.

- KOHN, CLYDE (ed.). *Geographic Approaches to Social Education*, The Nineteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1948.

Discusses goals of geographic education, organization of programs, teaching materials, and techniques for developing skills and concepts.

- LOBECK, A. K. *Things Maps Don't Tell Us*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1957.
Designed for the general public. Explains the geological factors making the physical landscape what it is today. Provides ideas useful in helping pupils interpret maps and the physical landscape. Many maps and diagrams.
- THRALLS, Zoë A. *The Teaching of Geography*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1958.
Highly useful chapters on maps and globes, using pictures and statistics, and a reading program in geography classes.
- WITTICH, WALTER, and SCHULLER, CHARLES. *Audio-Visual Materials, Their Nature and Use*, rev. ed. New York: Harper & Bros., 1957.
Contains a chapter on criteria for selecting globes and maps.

CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM ANALYSIS

Democracy is a process by which the citizenry makes and expresses choices. If these choices are generally unwise, democratic government may not survive. Yet the growing complexity of modern societies poses ever increasing difficulties in man's attempts to shape his decisions in a rational manner. Modern mass communication media make possible a wide dissemination of information—and misinformation. The perfection of persuasion techniques and the increasing specialization of knowledge make it imperative that citizens learn not to accept ideas blindly. No more important task faces the social studies teacher than to help students learn to think critically.

There are those who contend that the ability to think critically depends on superior intellectual capacity and cannot be developed by education. Considerable research contradicts this view. There is evidence, however, that critical thinking is not likely to develop as a by-product of teaching social studies, science, mathematics, or any other subject unless teachers make a conscious effort toward achieving this end.¹

CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM ANALYSIS

In order to teach critical thinking, the teacher must identify clearly the processes and skills involved. There are many useful analyses of the thinking process; perhaps the most famous is that

¹ E. M. Glaser reviews the literature in *An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941).

supplied by John Dewey. According to Dewey, reflective thinking is aroused by "a perplexed, troubled, or confused situation." Attempting to clarify the situation, a person goes through five stages of reflective thought: he formulates quick, tentative solutions or hypotheses; he identifies and defines the problem which started only as a felt difficulty; he improves his hypotheses and uses them as a guide to collect information; he elaborates and modifies his hypotheses in the light of this information; and he tests and verifies his hypotheses by experiment and observation, or at least by imaginative action. Dewey did not consider these stages to be separate and consecutive, but rather as steps to be taken sometime during the process of problem-solving. Some of the stages may occur simultaneously and some may need to be repeated before a solution is achieved.

Although, in a broad sense, all thinking starts with a problem or a state of perplexity or concern, it ranges from an almost conditioned reaction to highly complex problem analysis. Pupils can employ some aspects of critical thinking even though they have not defined a problem consciously and do not carry out the process of problem-solving or problem analysis systematically. They can learn to evaluate sources of information and to be aware of persuasion devices or hasty generalizations, for example. Critical thinking, then, involves analysis, evaluation, and careful examination of information and ideas. It is a part of problem analysis that may exist apart from the conscious application of the total process.

The skills that are involved in problem analysis are the study skills needed in gathering information and the critical thinking skills needed in evaluating and organizing it and in drawing conclusions. To help students develop these skills, the teacher should keep in mind the following principles which have been presented in more detail in Chapter 4. The stage must be set for instruction about a specific skill by creating in the student a desire to acquire it. The skill should be taught in the context of the work of the class. In order to provide adequately for individual differences, diagnostic devices should be used to indicate the stage that each pupil has attained in the process of skill development. After a skill has been taught, the students should be provided with many occasions to practice it. Teacher and students must check and recheck on growth with regard to the skill.

TEACHING SKILLS OF GATHERING INFORMATION

The social studies teacher shares with other teachers a responsibility for teaching boys and girls to gather information related

to the problems which they are studying. They must learn various skills needed to locate information, and they must develop techniques for taking helpful notes.

LOCATING INFORMATION. In order to locate the information they need, students must learn when and how to use the index and table of contents of a book; skim to locate specific information; use the library card catalog; use such tools as the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, the *New York Times Index*, and the *Vertical File Index*; and use special reference tools in the social sciences, such as statistical yearbooks, historical atlases, and the *Dictionary of American Biography*. Methods of teaching the first two skills are discussed in Chapters 17 and 9. Attention will be given here to the last three, although the specific uses of special reference tools are treated further in other chapters.

For successful use of the library card file and of various index guides, the student must gain an understanding of the commonly used symbols and abbreviations. To facilitate such instruction, the teacher must devise a means of showing sample cards and entries to the entire class while they are discussing the use of each tool. He may write a sample on the chalkboard, or duplicate samples for distribution to the class. Sample cards and entries may be projected with an opaque projector, or appropriate sections of a filmstrip dealing with library tools may be used. A library handbook, if available, may be studied by pupils individually.

After introducing pupils to the card catalog or an index guide, it is desirable to test their understanding of its use. Students may complete diagnostic exercises to see if they understand how to locate books that will be useful in the unit they are studying. They may be sent to the library to find answers to a series of questions about some problem or topic related to the unit. For example, they may be asked to find the title of a book by a certain author, the call number for a particular book, or the titles of all the books in the library on a specific topic. Following the introduction of an index tool, such as the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, the teacher may assign exercises consisting of questions based upon sample entries. Once the teacher is sure that each student understands the use of the particular library tool, he should reinforce the learning by giving many assignments requiring the use of the skill.

The card catalog and the various index guides cannot be effectively introduced all at one time. In some junior high schools pupils will not have had contact with the card catalog and the *Readers' Guide* and so will need a complete orientation to their purpose and use. These tools should be introduced when needed

in the continuing work of the class, not through a single "library lesson" or "tour" of the library. Their use must be reviewed and even retaught to students in later grades. The use of other index guides should probably wait until pupils are older and have need for them. Ninth-grade pupils studying community civics can make effective use of the *Vertical File Index* to locate and send for free and inexpensive booklets on topics they are studying. The use of more complicated tools, such as the *New York Times Index*, should not be introduced to entire classes until the junior or senior year, although more capable students may be taught to use them earlier.

Special reference books should be brought to class and used when they are needed to obtain specific types of information. After teaching pupils the purposes for which to use basic references, and how to use them, the teacher may prepare a series of matching questions such as the following to discover how well pupils are able to apply this information.

Match each question with the reference which would be most helpful in locating the answer. You may use any of the references for more than one question.

- | | |
|---|---|
| ___1. What are the various subdivisions of the U.S. State Department? | a. An atlas |
| ___2. When was the Webster-Ashburton Treaty signed? | b. An historical atlas |
| ___3. What were the boundaries of the U.S. in 1844? | c. <i>Dictionary of American Biography</i> |
| ___4. How does the U.S. compare in size with China? | d. <i>Dictionary of American History</i> |
| ___5. Where was Theodore Roosevelt educated? | e. <i>U.S. Government Manual</i> |
| ___6. What was the reaction of Britain to the recent statement of our Secretary of State on the crisis in_____? | f. <i>Who's Who in America</i> |
| ___7. How much oil did the U.S. import last year? | g. <i>The World Almanac</i> |
| | h. <i>Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature</i> |
| | i. A geography textbook |
| | j. A civics textbook |
| | k. A history textbook |

More important than exercises, however, is habitual use of special references in the continuing work of the class.

NOTE-TAKING. Although students may have learned to take simple notes in the elementary school, most of them need to refine their skill in the junior and senior high school. It is imperative that they understand and accept the purposes of note-taking. The value for recall and review is obvious, as is the necessity of note-taking in collecting information for extended study of a topic. Pupils also need to understand that note-taking helps them to be attentive and active listeners and readers.

Because it is easier to make notes on readings than on lectures or discussions, emphasis in the junior high school should be placed on note-taking on readings.

In helping students to learn some general principles of note-taking, instructions such as these can provide useful guidance:

1. Skim through a section or chapter before making notes; then read and take notes.
2. Put notes in your own words except in the case of particularly apt phrases or questions, which may be copied exactly. Place quotation marks around words of the author. Omitting or changing one or two words in a passage does not make it your own; if you quote, quote exactly.
3. Note the exact source of your information. Write down the page reference for each direct quotation or figure.
4. If you are making notes from a single source of information, and will not be using other sources in this assignment, you may decide to outline the material. As you read, use headings, italics, topic sentences, and key words such as "first," "second," and "third" to help you pick out important points.

The teacher can help students develop note-taking skills by a number of devices. After pupils have read a section in a textbook, the teacher may make notes in outline form on the chalkboard, explaining why he puts down each item. Or the class may work out a cooperative set of notes. Later, students may practice by making notes on another chapter in the textbook, or on an article in the current events paper. Several student outlines may be projected with the opaque projector, so that all members of the class can see and discuss the strong and weak points of each.

A more advanced step in note-taking comes when students are using several sources of information as they investigate a topic. Now is the time to introduce the use of note cards. The teacher may present a satiric demonstration of the confusion that results from trying to assemble related material from many sheets of notes, each containing material from one reference, but covering many aspects of the general topic. He should follow with another demonstration in which the same notes have been placed on note cards that can be shuffled easily to fit an outline. Students should be taught to put a single title at the top of each note card, to record the source of information (including page numbers), and to put only one note on a card. Throughout this instruction, the teacher must be alert to point out the most common faults in note-taking: undue length, overuse of quotations, and poor organization.

The taking of notes on class discussions, lectures, or speeches is

a skill to be emphasized in the senior high school, although a beginning can be made in the junior high school and should be made with classes of advanced pupils in schools where homogeneous grouping is used. The note-taking techniques and exercises described in Chapter 10 may be utilized.

The teacher should examine notes that are taken and make suggestions for their improvement. Unless this is done in the early stages of instruction, pupils may develop poor habits that will be difficult to eradicate later. Even when they seem to have developed satisfactory note-taking habits, the teacher should spotcheck notes and suggest ways of improving them if that is needed.

TEACHING SKILLS OF CRITICAL THINKING

Pupils need to learn to think critically both about the material they are gathering and about their own thought processes as they organize information and draw conclusions. The person who thinks critically distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant material, checks on the reliability of authors and the accuracy of information, tries to assess the completeness of information, and is wary of generalizations based on conflicting or insufficient facts.

EVALUATING INFORMATION. Some attention will have been given to the subject of evaluating information in the elementary grades. For example, even young pupils will have discussed the truth or falsity of statements and the need to gather as much accurate information as they can find about a given subject.

At the secondary school level more mature approaches are in order. Basic to growth in skills is the development of a critical frame of mind. An alertness to the need for evaluating sources, a willingness to test opinions and change them in the light of new evidence, and the desire to consider all viewpoints should be cultivated. Without this point of view, increased competence in evaluating information in classroom exercises and discussion will have little carry over into out-of-school situations. As an aid to the development of critical-mindedness, however, specific skills in evaluating information must be taught.

Determining Relevance of Material. An important skill is that of determining the relevance of information or ideas to the question at hand. Pupils can be made more conscious of what is involved if the teacher habitually directs attention to the question of relevance in class discussions. Students who introduce irrelevant ideas or questions should invariably be asked, "How does your statement

(or question) relate to the topic?" or "How does this information help clarify the problem we are discussing?"

Exercises related to the topic under study may be prepared. For example, in a junior high school United States history class which is studying the reasons for the growth of large cities, exercises such as the following may be administered and then discussed:

Place a checkmark before each statement which helps to explain why Chicago became the main meat-packing center of the Middle West:

- ___1. Chicago became a railroad center.
- ___2. Chicago is a Great Lakes port.
- ___3. A world's fair was held at Chicago in 1893.
- ___4. Chicago is located between cattle-raising regions and regions of great population.
- ___5. Chicago is located in the "corn belt."
- ___6. Chicago is the home of several colleges and universities.
- ___7. Chicago grew up on the site of an army post.²

Newspapers and magazines are a rich source of materials for class exercises concerning relevance of information to the topic that is under discussion. The teacher may read aloud a letter to a newspaper, an editorial, a political column, or the text of a campaign speech, having pupils take notes of content that they consider unrelated to the main issue. A follow-up discussion will be necessary, of course.

Evaluating Reliability of Authors. In learning to assess the reliability of information, the student should become familiar with a variety of clues that he may apply in evaluating the sources of his information.

Whether a source of information is a person who claims to have witnessed an event or one who is writing about it from hearsay, students should be alert to possible biases that might result in a slanting of information. They should learn to ask questions such as the following about the source they are using: Would this person's interests be injured by a report different from the one he gave? Is he trying to win favor by his report? What attitudes of his might color his interpretations? Do his position and connections provide leads to his attitudes? In the case of a writer, what was his purpose in preparing the account? To inform? To amuse—and perhaps get profits? To persuade? Is it likely that his purpose would affect the accuracy of the report?

The reporter may be unbiased, but unless he is a competent witness his account may have little value. In evaluating the com-

² Adapted from Morse and McCune (see Selected Readings).

petence of a witness, other inquiries will be useful: What opportunities did this person have to observe the event or situation he is describing? What background does he have that would enable him to understand the things he observed? If he is describing conditions in a foreign country, how long was he there and how widely did he travel in the country? When did he prepare his account, immediately after the event, or some years later? Does this person's account agree or conflict with those that other witnesses have given?

Frequently, students will seek information in books written by people who do not claim to have witnessed the things they are describing. In such cases, students need to consider how much reliance they can place on the accuracy of the facts and the validity of the interpretations. They can learn to ask: Does the author have training that would equip him to investigate this topic? Is he recognized as an expert by others in his field of work? Does he cite his sources of information or describe his methods of collecting information? Are his sources and/or methods adequate? Students should form the habit of checking more than one source, in order to discover whether or not there is agreement among authorities. They also need to learn that secondary accounts by well-prepared authors may be superior to reports of untrained eye-witnesses.

There must be continuing attention to the evaluation of sources if students are to make such evaluation habitual. Whether they are studying contemporary situations or historical episodes, they should discuss their sources of information as well as the facts and ideas presented. They can also complete and discuss exercises related to the current unit of study. For example, a class studying the American Revolution would profit from using a series of questions such as this one:

- Which would be the most reliable source of information about Patrick Henry's "Liberty or Death" speech? An account that was written by:
(1) Henry 25 years later, (2) a fellow delegate while Henry was speaking, (3) an author who described the speech in a novel.³

Differentiating Fact and Opinion. Differentiating statements that can be proved valid and those which cannot is an essential approach in checking on the accuracy of information. The development of this ability may begin at the level of distinguishing between statements of fact and expressions of opinion. Once this difference has been discussed and demonstrated to students, at-

³ Adapted from Morse and McCune (see Selected Readings).

tention should be paid to it regularly in class discussions and other work. Whenever a student presents an opinion as if it were a matter of fact, he should be asked some such question as, "Can you prove your statement, or is it only your opinion? What information would you need in order to convince us of the truth of the statement?"

The teacher may construct exercises in distinguishing between fact and opinion, basing them on content that the pupils are studying at the time. Current affairs materials offer many opportunities for developing the ability to differentiate fact and opinion. In one type of exercise, a number of statements are listed and students are required to mark each one as fact or opinion. When they discuss the completed exercise, they are called on to show why they marked each statement as they did.

As students gain experience in distinguishing between fact and opinion, they discover that sometimes it is difficult to draw a line between the two. A statement may seem to be capable of proof, but the supporting evidence would be so difficult to obtain that for all practical purposes it must remain in a separate classification of difficult but not impossible to prove. Exercises such as the following are useful for refining the ability to determine difficulty of proof.

- Which of the following would be most difficult to prove true or false?
- (1) The Republicans were responsible for the depression of 1929.
 - (2) The stock market crash of 1929 was preceded by a period of low farm incomes.
 - (3) The depression brought great hardships to many farmers and city workers.
 - (4) Those on fixed incomes are better off during a depression than during inflation.

Examining Assumptions. Deductive reasoning is based upon assumptions which the writer or speaker accepts and reasons from without offering proof. Many assumptions represent value judgments and are not susceptible of proof; others could be substantiated. The specific facts that are used to develop an argument may be accurate, but the conclusions cannot be valid if the assumptions are false or unacceptable. For example, facts can be cited as a basis for the conclusion that public housing programs are desirable or undesirable, depending on the assumptions that a person accepts. Consequently, it is highly important that pupils learn to examine assumptions.

Before an assumption can be examined, however, it must be identified. As a discussion leader, the teacher can help students to recognize assumptions by asking questions such as, "Why do you think so?", "What must John believe in order to take this position?"

or "What values are you accepting when you propose this course of action?" A useful exercise is to have pupils listen to or read materials written to persuade, such as editorials, and state the underlying assumptions of the author. Or, after the material has been presented, students may be asked to choose, from a list of four or five statements, the assumption which underlies the argument.

When the assumption has been identified, it must be studied to determine whether or not it is susceptible of proof. This step may call for considerable study of the subject that is involved. If the assumption represents a value judgment rather than a verifiable statement, the student must consider it to decide whether he is willing to accept it. If not, he can scarcely accept any course of action that would follow logically only from such a point of view.

Checking Data. The presentation of accurate but incomplete information, the "card-stacking" trick, is a persuasion technique that is frequently used. It may be effectively illustrated to students during a political campaign by having them analyze speeches of opposing candidates. What does each say about a particular issue? What part of his opponent's record or the record of the opposing party does he emphasize? By analyzing such materials, students are likely to learn that people frequently select the facts that favor their position, ignoring other pertinent data and theories which must be considering before coming to a reasoned conclusion.

More mature students can be taught some of the common fallacies in the use of statistics. A high statistical correlation, for example, does not necessarily signify a cause-effect relationship. This is not to say that correlations are without significance. Students can learn to look for possible relationships, keeping in mind the need for considering other factors that may cause a change in both rates. Because poor sampling results in faulty generalizations, pupils need to develop the habit of evaluating sampling procedures whenever possible. These and other fallacies in the use of statistics are discussed with many amusing examples, in Huff, noted in Selected Readings.

Students should be encouraged to criticize the study materials they use for completeness of data, and to check their own presentations and those of their classmates for this point.

Detecting Inconsistencies. Examining conclusions involves checking on consistency or inconsistency among the arguments and proposals that are advanced with regard to an issue. Students who have developed this ability will recognize, for example, the inconsistencies in a campaign speech in which a candidate for

political office promises to work for lower taxes, higher farm price supports, increased social services, and a larger budget for national defense. The teacher can help students learn to recognize consistency and to detect inconsistencies through analytic discussions of political speeches and magazine articles dealing with current issues. He can ask students to analyze the voting records of their representatives in the state legislature and the Congress, to discover which ones have followed a consistent pattern of voting, whether in terms of party affiliation or of political-social views as expressed in their public speeches. The teacher can also challenge students if they advance inconsistent or conflicting arguments in class discussion, by asking such questions as, "How do you reconcile this statement with the argument you presented a few minutes ago?", "Is this conclusion supported by the information we have, or does the information conflict with the conclusion?"

The ability to detect inconsistencies will not be developed by sporadic exercises but by utilizing the opportunities to give it attention that arise almost daily in social studies classwork.

DRAWING CONCLUSIONS. Formulating a conclusion involves (1) stating the possible conclusions that could be drawn from the information that has been gathered, (2) testing these possible conclusions in the light of the data, and (3) reaching a tentative conclusion which will be subject to revision if new information calls for such revision. The teacher can use two closely related approaches to teach this aspect of critical thinking. One is to lead students to analyze conclusions that are stated in readings, speeches, films, and other materials the pupils are studying. The other is to provide many opportunities for students to draw conclusions from *information they have collected, and to make a critical analysis of the process through which they have arrived at conclusions.* This analysis should include at least three checks on the validity of the conclusion: Are the assumptions that are involved in the conclusion acceptable? How complete is the data on which the conclusion is based? Are there inconsistencies in the arguments advanced to support a conclusion, or between the conclusion and the data on which it is based? In essence, the critical analysis which pupils make of their own thinking is the same that they have learned to apply to other sources of information.

TEACHING PROBLEM-CENTERED UNITS

Problem-centered units provide an effective vehicle for teaching critical-thinking skills and the process of problem analysis. The

characteristics of such units are described in Chapter 5. More specific suggestions for developing them in the classroom are presented in this section.

One note of caution should be sounded with regard to the use of problem-centered units in social studies classes. Most of modern society's major problem areas are so complex and so interrelated that no perfect solutions and no permanent solutions can be found. Rather the citizenry and its leaders must seek to determine, for each significant problem, the best policy under existing circumstances and be ready to modify or even reverse that policy as circumstances change. Even the "best" policy will usually not be acceptable to all groups, and reasonable accommodation to policies that are not wholly acceptable is one of the requirements for living in the modern world. A major goal of problem-centered units therefore must be to help young people understand that solutions to social problems are tentative and subject to revision, and that a significant problem cannot be dealt with realistically in terms of black and white, or "two-valued" judgments. If students think that they have "solved" a problem when they complete their study of it, an essential purpose of such study has been defeated. It may be desirable to avoid use of the term "problem-solving" in the classroom, and speak instead of "problem analysis." Certainly when conclusions are drawn and applied at the end of a unit, their tentative nature should be emphasized.

The steps in developing a problem-centered unit follow those of the process of problem analysis. They include selecting a problem for study, defining the problem, collecting and evaluating data, drawing conclusions, and acting upon or applying the conclusions.

SELECTING THE PROBLEM. The problem area to be studied may be selected through teacher-pupil planning or by the teacher. In either case, criteria such as the following may be used as a basis for the selection:

1. Does the problem concern most of the class members, or can a concern for it be developed?
2. Are the pupils sufficiently mature to deal with this problem, or important aspects of it?
3. Is the problem pertinent to the work of the class?
4. Is the problem of sufficient significance to warrant class study?
5. Is there available enough verifiable data for an adequate study of the problem?
6. Is sufficient time available for dealing with the problem?

These criteria contain some of the same elements as those suggested for selecting controversial issues for classroom study (see

p. 246). This is hardly surprising, since most significant problem areas are controversial to some extent. Among the problem areas that have been found by many teachers to meet these criteria for their classes are the following: Labor-management relations, housing, tax policies, family life, world economic problems, international cooperation, domestic politics, intergroup relations, consumer education, vocational choice, and conservation of natural resources. Case studies of problem-centered units developed in these and similar problem areas are given in Gross (see Selected Readings).

DEFINING THE PROBLEM. Whether the problem is selected by the teacher or through cooperative planning, class time must be devoted to developing in students a sensitivity to its significance and a recognition of what is involved in it. Although an early attempt at defining the problem may be made, most problem areas will require considerable exploration before students are prepared to arrive at an adequate definition. During this stage students should read widely, seeking basic information and various points of view about the problem area. The teacher may read to the class statements that represent different viewpoints. Students may compare materials issued by special interest groups that hold opposing views about the problem, and discover what solutions have been proposed.

When adequate exploration has taken place, the students are ready to define the problem as a basis for further study. They should work through these steps:

1. Isolate the basic issue or problem that is involved.
2. Limit the problem, with the available time and resources and the level of student skills in mind.
3. Revise the wording of the problem to clarify its focus and remove ambiguities.
4. Identify basic assumptions or value judgments that are involved.
5. List subproblems that must be investigated in order to deal with the main problem.
6. List as hypotheses all proposed courses of action for dealing with the problem that students have encountered or thought of during their preliminary exploration.

The definition of the problem which is developed should be considered as tentative by students and teacher. It will probably be necessary, or at least desirable, to revise it as students gather more complete information. They are likely to discover new subproblems that should be investigated. They will almost surely find or think of additional courses of action for dealing with the problem.

DEVELOPING THE PROBLEM STUDY. During the developmental stage of the problem-centered unit, students may use such questions as the following as a guide to their study of each subproblem and so of the problem itself:

1. What information do I already have about this topic?
2. About what aspects of the topic do I need more information? Which proposed courses of action and points of view do I need to investigate more thoroughly?
3. How can I locate the needed information? What specific references and sources can I use: books, periodicals, newspapers, pamphlets, persons to be interviewed, places to be visited?
4. How can I evaluate the information I collect? What checks can I apply?
5. How can I organize my findings? Do the subproblems that have been listed furnish a useful organization, or should they be revised in the light of new information?
6. How shall I present my findings? What illustrative charts or graphs can I use to supplement my written or oral presentation?

As students collect, evaluate, and organize data related to the problem, they should consciously apply the study and critical-thinking skills discussed earlier in this chapter. The teacher must work with them, individually and in groups, to ascertain how successfully students are using these skills and to help pupils who need assistance in applying them. The teacher may arrange film showings, a field trip, and discussion periods as these activities are needed to move the work forward. The statement of the problem and of possible courses of action for dealing with it should be reviewed and needed revisions made after students have made progress in collecting and organizing information.

DRAWING CONCLUSIONS. From the first listing of possible courses of action with regard to the problem, the students have been considering and testing hypotheses about conclusions or solutions. Now that they have collected a considerable body of information and organized it to throw light on subproblems and issues, they are ready to formulate the best conclusions that they can reach in the light of their evidence. Again, they may use a set of questions as a guide to the process they should employ:

1. What are the various conclusions about courses of action that can be drawn from the data we have collected?
2. What assumptions or value judgments are involved in each of these conclusions or courses of action?
3. What would probably be the consequences of each of the possible courses of action?

4. Which one (or ones) of the conclusions or courses of action seems to be most feasible and most desirable, when the probable consequences are taken into account?

As a check on the validity of their conclusions and the course of action implied by them, the student should list and examine the reasons for their choice from the various conclusions that could be drawn from the data. Are they reasoning from the evidence, or have they permitted bias to influence their conclusion? Are there inconsistencies between the evidence and the conclusion, or between the values they accept and the conclusion? Throughout the problem analysis, but especially during this stage, the teacher must strive for a classroom climate which permits each student to arrive at his own conclusion so long as he is dealing with the evidence in a rational manner. The tentative nature of all conclusions or proposals for solution of the problem, and the need for revising them as conditions change and new evidence is developed, should also be emphasized.

ACTING ON CONCLUSIONS. Opportunities for social action by secondary school youth tend to be limited. This is especially true of action regarding the significant social problems that pupils can study effectively through problem analysis. Nevertheless, a problem-centered unit should culminate in a consideration of possible action to implement the conclusions that have been drawn. The action program may involve the community through surveys or information-giving activities, such as those described on pages 358-59. Or it may be carried out within the school, through articles in the school newspaper or a presentation of findings to other classes or to the school at an assembly. The action may involve personal "action rules" which the class develops, as in the case of students who ended their study of problems of intergroup relations by formulating this code of behavior for themselves:

1. I will try to show by my daily actions that I respect the beliefs of others—religious, political, economic, cultural.
2. I will try to value each person for what he is or does or refrains from doing, not judge him by his racial, religious, or economic group.
3. I will try to like people, but I will at least be courteous and decent to those I don't like or don't know.

Whatever action is planned must be realistic within the limits of the situation. The teacher must accept responsibility for knowing or discovering from his supervisors in the school what those

limits are, and guiding students in their formulation of action activities.

The skills of critical thinking and problem analysis are essential to effective citizenship in a democracy. There is evidence that students can develop these skills if they receive systematic instruction about them, and if many opportunities to use the skills are provided. Aspects of critical thinking can be taught in every social studies unit of work, in relation to the study of regularly assigned content. Problem-centered units offer an effective vehicle for teaching the process of problem analysis. As they learn and apply the skills of critical thinking and problem analysis, students should become aware that there are no perfect final solutions to social problems, but that social policies should be based on analysis of the most complete and authoritative evidence that can be obtained and should be revised as new circumstances and new evidence develop.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

McMURRY, DONALD L. "The Evaluation of Propaganda by the Historical Method," in Elmer Ellis (ed.), *Education Against Propaganda*, Seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1937. Pp. 134-48.

Describes an exercise in which students compare and analyze primary and secondary materials which present conflicting statements about the Battle of Lexington.

THURSFIELD, RICHARD. "Developing the Ability to Think Reasonably," in Richard Thursfield (ed.), *The Study and Teaching of American History*, Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1946. Pp. 77-93.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

ANDERSON, HOWARD R. (ed.). *Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies*, Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1942.

Describes problem-solving in the social studies and gives numerous examples of techniques and materials used in developing critical thinking. The discussion of evaluation includes sample items.

DEWEY, JOHN. *How We Think*, rev. ed. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1933.
A classic on the problem-solving process.

DRESSEL, PAUL L., and MAYHEW, LEWIS B. *Critical Thinking in Social Science. A Handbook for Evaluation and Teaching*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown Co., 1954.

Describes a project at the junior college level. The suggested devices can be adapted for use in secondary school classes. They are equally useful as exercises to teach skills and for evaluation.

- GROSS, RICHARD E., MUESSIG, RAYMOND H., and FERSH, GEORGE L. (eds.). *The Problems Approach and the Social Studies*, Curriculum Series, No. 9, rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960. Pp. 121.

Contains numerous case studies of problem-centered units.

- HUFF, DARRELL. *How to Lie With Statistics*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1954.

Suggests precautions for consumers of statistical information.

- HUNT, MAURICE P., and METCALF, LAWRENCE E. *Teaching High School Social Studies*. New York: Harper & Bros. 1955.

Stresses the importance of teaching reflective thinking in a democracy. Discusses the problem-solving process and discusses its relationship to value choices. Suggests ways of stimulating reflective thought in the study of both controversial issues and traditional content areas.

- JOHNSON, HENRY. *The Teaching of History*, rev. ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1940.

Chapter 15, "School History and the Historical Method," which describes ways of teaching pupils to evaluate sources of information, is a "classic" in educational literature.

- LITTLE, WINSTON W.; WILSON, W. HAROLD; and MOORE, W. EDGAR. *Applied Logic*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1955.

An introductory book on logic which can be used by the novice, whether teacher or high school student. Contains useful exercises.

- MORSE, HORACE T., and McCUNE, GEORGE H. *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills and Critical Thinking*, rev. ed. Bulletin No. 15. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1957. Pp. 80.

Identifies seventeen skills and gives sample items for evaluating growth in each. These or similar items can also be used as classroom exercises to help develop the desired skills.

- OSBORN, ALEX F. *Applied Imagination*, rev. ed. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1957.

The inventor of brainstorming discusses factors affecting creativity and describes ways of using brainstorming to obtain creative ideas. Suggestions for creating a permissive atmosphere and for stimulating ideas can be adapted to classroom discussions.

- RUSSELL, DAVID H. *Children's Thinking*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1956.

Summarizes research on teaching critical and creative thinking and the larger problem-solving process.

CURRENT AFFAIRS AND CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

Nearly all educators accept the teaching of current affairs as a desirable means of achieving social studies goals. Defined less narrowly than in the past, a "current affairs" program includes study of historical and geographic backgrounds of present-day events, as well as study of the events themselves. This broad conception of current affairs instruction has developed from the realization that it is impossible to obtain more than a superficial understanding of today's world without some historical perspective on current happenings and some knowledge of their geographic setting.

Not all but many of the current affairs examined in social studies classes have controversial aspects. That is, many current affairs involve issues for which conflicting solutions are advocated by various groups of citizens. Such issues become controversial when the proponents of the conflicting solutions hold strong emotional or intellectual commitments to their particular points of view. An issue which may be controversial in one section of the country or at one time may not be so considered in another section or at another time.

ACHIEVING GOALS OF INSTRUCTION

The overriding purpose in teaching about current affairs and controversial issues in the secondary school is to help the student grow into a well-informed citizen who understands questions of public policy and contributes to their solution through the formation of a sound public opinion. To do so he must gain a background of information about contemporary affairs and develop skills to

enable him, as an adult citizen, to arrive at informed opinions about issues of the day.

An obvious and short-range goal of current affairs instruction is to teach students factual information about contemporary affairs. They must use this information in developing the habits, attitudes, and skills, including critical thinking skills, that are the long-range goals of the program. Students must learn facts about the current affairs of today in order to build a background of information against which to study the events of the weeks, years, and decades to come.

To say that the teaching of facts about current affairs is a short-range goal is not to derogate its importance. But the social studies teacher should keep the goal of acquiring information about current affairs in perspective. Students will profit from learning facts about passing events only as they use these facts to develop skills and interests they can carry into adult life.

DEVELOPING HABITS AND ATTITUDES. The citizen who is well-informed about public problems has a continuing interest in current affairs, and the habit of following them. Experience with current affairs in school should help the student develop this lasting interest and the habit of using a variety of sources to be well informed about contemporary issues.

Present-day events and problems cannot be understood without some knowledge of their historical and geographic backgrounds. A student must develop the habit, therefore, of seeking and considering information about past events and geographic conditions that have a bearing on the current situation about which he is studying.

Along with other parts of the social studies program, current affairs study should develop attitudes consistent with democratic values in an interdependent world. For example, it should increase the student's sensitivity to humanitarian problems and cause him to seek solutions within the framework of democratic action. Study of the United States' role in world affairs should help him develop an attitude of enlightened self-interest, based on consideration of the effects of a policy on other nations as well as on his own. Throughout the secondary school, the study of current affairs should strengthen the student's attitudes of fair-mindedness and his belief in freedom of speech for those with whom he disagrees or whom he finds "strange" because of differences in customs or opinions.

DEVELOPING SKILLS. Instruction in current affairs should help students distinguish significant from insignificant events, and quickly locate information about the significant. A person cannot hope to

keep up with all the news that is reported in today's mass media. He must learn to select the important events and developments for study, and to skim over the trivial.

In order to do so the student must develop criteria for separating the important from the trivial. He must also learn to locate the news items which deserve his careful attention. More specifically, the student should learn to use the index of the newspaper and news magazine, and become familiar with the organization of the papers and journals that he sees regularly, so that he can turn quickly to items about politics, international affairs, and other significant topics. He should learn to skim headlines and introductory paragraphs of articles so that he can gain a general idea of current happenings and select the items that deserve more careful reading. The student should also learn the general patterns and emphases of radio and television news programs, in order to select those of most worth.

Learning to think critically about current affairs, especially about those that involve controversial issues, is another goal of current affairs instruction that emphasizes the teaching of skills. If citizens are to think rationally about controversial issues of public concern, they need to begin the process as young people in school; as indicated in the previous chapter, a person develops the skills of critical thinking and problem-solving only through experience in applying them. The social studies teacher can provide a comparatively objective classroom atmosphere in which students can learn to analyze sociopolitical problems, and thus prepare themselves to handle such problems in the more emotionally charged situations they will meet as adults.

An important aspect of thinking critically about current affairs is evaluating sources of information. Students should learn to recognize points of view and biases of particular newspapers, magazines, commentators, pressure groups, and other sources of information. They should learn to recognize and discount persuasion devices that may be used in news reporting, such as colored words, irrelevant appeals to authority, and "card stacking" by giving major emphasis to one viewpoint while pretending to present the various sides of a question. Students should also develop the habit of evaluating the source of a news item through such questions as these: Was the information provided by a newsgathering agency, such as the Associated Press or United Press International, by a named correspondent, or by an unnamed source? Does the reporter indicate how he acquired his information? Did he observe events himself? Did he secure his information from a named official or

witnesses to an event? Or does he refer only to "a source high in the government," "a reliable source," "an unimpeachable authority," "rumors on Capitol Hill," or other *unidentifiable sources*?

ENRICHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAM. Current affairs instruction should make other aspects of the social studies program more meaningful. By relating present events with their historical background, the teacher can help pupils see the significance of the past for their own lives. This, in turn, makes the past seem more interesting. Similarly, current happenings can be used to illustrate, illuminate, and enliven many topics in geography, civics, economics, and sociology. Study of controversial issues particularly tends to heighten student interest.

But study of current affairs can do more than add interest to the social studies program. Pupils need up-to-date information if they are to arrive at accurate generalizations about many of the topics they study in textbooks. Current world affairs, for example, throw light on the ability of the United Nations to meet certain types of crises or to achieve economic and social goals. Current developments in a social problem area, such as that of racial integration, may cause modification of former interpretations and proposed solutions. Current examples are needed so that students can see how recent legislation described in textbooks has worked. Thus the study of current affairs should be an integral part of any social studies class.

SELECTING CURRENT AFFAIRS CONTENT AND MATERIALS

To achieve these goals of current affairs instruction, the social studies teacher must select carefully the specific content and the learning materials to be used. He can employ definite criteria to guide his selection.

SELECTING CONTENT. Because there are limits to the amount of time a social studies class can devote to current affairs, the topics to be studied must be selected in the light of accepted goals. The social studies teacher must make the selection, or guide students in choosing topics through cooperative planning. To the extent that pupils are sufficiently mature to do so, they should participate in the selection, for they need experience in discriminating between the significant and the trivial. When pupils share in the selection, they should work out and use criteria similar to those suggested in Chapter 13 for choosing problems for study. Whether or not teacher-pupil planning is used, the teacher should

keep four general criteria in mind as content is selected for the current affairs program.

Just as in choosing any other topic for study, the teacher must consider whether a current topic is appropriate for the pupils in the class. Is the topic suited to their maturity level? Is it of interest to them, or can their interest in it be aroused, given their ability, age, and general background? Can they comprehend information about the topic at a level that will justify the time required for its study?

Another criterion is that of significance. Is the current development so important to the American public or to the world at large that pupils who are mature enough to understand it should study it? Current topics of major significance should receive attention in every social studies class where pupils can study them with understanding. On the other hand, many current affairs that are of lesser importance are nevertheless significant and worthy of study by a particular class if they are related to the social studies course content. Can the topic be used to create greater student interest in the main body of course content? Can pupils, through studying the current event, gain a better understanding of a persistent social problem or theme that they are studying about in world history, for example? Does the current happening bring a textbook account up to date, alter interpretations given therein, or illustrate a point that has been studied in a civics or a geography class? Thus a world history class may profitably examine certain items that would be given slight attention or even ignored in a class in problems of democracy, and vice versa.

Third, if a current happening does not meet the criterion of significance but is one in which pupils have expressed great interest, can it be used as a springboard to consideration of a topic that is significant and is pertinent to the course content? Thus, a gang murder can be used to lead into a study of causes of delinquency, a murder trial to an analysis of the rights of the accused, or an air crash to a study of federal regulation of the airways. A class should not be permitted, however, to spend its time on trivia merely because a student has proposed the topic; the discussion should be turned quickly to the implications for society. If it is not feasible to do so, the topic should be dropped as soon as the reason for not considering it has been established.

A fourth criterion for selecting a current affairs topic for class study is the availability of information concerning it. Do students have access to suitable reading materials in which it is discussed? Are there enough materials for each class member to use? Is it a

topic about which they can gather information from radio or television? Unless such questions as these can be answered affirmatively, study of the topic will be unprofitable, regardless of its intrinsic instructional value. As an alternative, a student or the teacher may present a brief summary of the information that is available, reserving the subject for later study when materials can be located, if it continues to be of significance.

SELECTING LEARNING MATERIALS. In addition to selecting current affairs content, the teacher must choose learning materials appropriate to achieving his instructional goals. A variety of materials is available for the study of current affairs. They include current events papers prepared especially for the schools; adult newspapers, news magazines, and journals of opinion; radio and television newscasts and analyses; and films and filmstrips prepared for school use. Background information is provided in pamphlets, reference books, textbooks, and specialized accounts. As in the case of selecting content, the teacher can employ general criteria as guides to building a collection of current affairs materials for student use.

An obvious criterion concerns adequacy of coverage. Within the collection there should be coverage of the current affairs topics that are judged to be significant for class study. This implies that a variety of materials should be available since a single source is unlikely to provide both a range of current news items and of background materials that will be needed. It is true that current events newspapers and filmstrips prepared especially for school use usually give some attention to historical and geographic backgrounds of topics that are discussed. Because of space limitations, however, these materials cannot give full coverage of current happenings.

An equally obvious criterion in selecting current events materials is that of suitability for the ability and maturity level of the students. Classroom newspapers, a list of which is given on page 249, offer the advantages of careful selection of topics, a clear organization of information, and readable presentation for pupils of a specified grade level.

The junior high school teacher can provide for the better readers among his pupils by ordering a few copies of a classroom newspaper that is graded for senior high school and by encouraging the use of adult newspapers. He can help slower readers by obtaining copies of a classroom paper that is prepared for intermediate-grade students.

The senior high school teacher, in turn, can obtain copies of a

classroom newspaper prepared for the junior high school level for his slower readers to use. Better readers in the senior high school can rely heavily on adult newspapers and magazines and all senior high school students should learn to use these materials regularly.

Radio and television news programs tend to vary in the level of analysis presented. Through familiarity with the major programs, the teacher can encourage pupils to use them appropriately. He will find that most current affairs films and filmstrips can be adapted to any secondary-school class by introducing them with needed explanations and pitching the follow-up discussion at a level appropriate for students concerned.

Another guide for selecting current affairs materials is that of achieving representation of various viewpoints and interpretations. If students are to learn to compare and evaluate sources, they must have various sources to work with. If they are to form the habit of applying critical-thinking skills to news analyses, and to consider current problems within a framework of democratic values, they must have opportunity to study representative interpretations and consider conflicting points of view.

The teacher who applies these criteria to the selection of materials for current affairs instruction will use a wide variety of sources. It is necessary that he do so if he is to provide for adequate coverage of current happenings, for the abilities of his students, and for developing the habits, skills and attitudes that are the central goals of current affairs instruction.

ORGANIZING CLASSROOM STUDY OF CURRENT AFFAIRS

Current affairs can be incorporated into the content of the social studies program in a number of ways. The teacher needs to be familiar with the various plans that are useful in organizing the study of such topics, in order to choose those best fitted to his situation and to the topics to be studied. He will wisely vary the organizational pattern from time to time and from class to class.

WEEKLY CURRENT AFFAIRS PERIOD. Perhaps the most widely used plan for current affairs instruction utilizes one class period each week and employs a classroom newspaper. This plan insures regular, continuing attention to contemporary affairs. Unless it is supplemented by other approaches, however, it may have the disadvantage of divorcing current affairs study from the rest of the work of the class.

Within the current affairs period, a number of approaches can be used and varied from week to week. The time may be used

for a survey of major events of the week. If students draw on daily newspapers, radio and television news programs, and other sources, in addition to the classroom newspaper, this procedure can help develop the habit of keeping up with the news. A survey of many events in one class period, however, can result in little more than a superficial study. To provide for more thorough work, the class period may be devoted to a single topic each week. Class activity may consist of discussion based on advance assignments or of committee reports. If the committee plan is to be used, the class sets up standing current affairs committees early in the year and expects reports from each committee at appropriate times during the year. The committee assignments may be focused on major topics of domestic and foreign affairs, or each committee may be responsible for following events in a geographic area. When the committees have been set up, the teacher provides time for pupils to study and present to the class essential background information about their assigned topic or region. After that, each current events period is devoted to reports from selected committees on current developments in their assigned field.

Combinations of these plans for using the weekly current affairs period are used by many teachers. Most of the period may be given to one important topic, either through a general discussion or through a committee report, with 10 or 15 minutes reserved for a survey of other current events. Or the period may be divided to enable two or three committees, whose topics are in the headlines, to report and lead discussion about their assigned topics.

INCIDENTAL TREATMENT OF THE NEWS. Some teachers prefer to deal with the news when an important event occurs, by providing time for students to discuss it at the beginning of the class period. This plan is usually associated with the attempt to have students read a daily newspaper or listen regularly to newscasts. Incidental treatment of the news can be useful in achieving the goals of the current affairs program if it is combined with other plans of instruction. Used alone, this plan cannot give students opportunities for the analysis and background study of current happenings necessary to gain understanding of current affairs. The plan can be made profitable, however, by combining it with a weekly current affairs period or with periodic current affairs units.

EXTENDED STUDY OF CURRENT AFFAIRS. Some teachers combine incidental treatment of the news with periodic study of current affairs lasting several days. This study is scheduled between the basic units of the course, or between subdivisions of the basic units. The current affairs topic or topics to be discussed on these days

are identified in advance so that students can investigate them in some depth, using a variety of sources of information. Class time is then used to present and discuss information, to compare and evaluate sources that have been used, and to draw tentative conclusions about policies and problems related to the topics.

This plan has the advantages of providing for a more concentrated study of selected topics than can the weekly current affairs period, and of fitting current affairs study into the total course work at convenient times. It also facilitates systematic reinforcement of the skills, habits, and attitudes that current affairs instruction should engender. Using periodic units will not provide as much continuity in the treatment of news as the weekly current affairs period, however, unless the plan is combined with incidental treatment as described above.

INCORPORATING CURRENT AFFAIRS INTO REGULAR COURSE WORK. Regardless of which of the above approaches is used, the teacher should also relate current affairs to the regular course work. This may be done in various ways, depending upon the organization of the curriculum.

In courses devoted to nonhistorical topics, current affairs can easily be incorporated into basic units of study. Courses in geography, economics, sociology, civics, and problems of democracy deal primarily with present-day society, although they also include historical or other background information. As pupils study such topics as conservation, international trade, housing, or the presidency, or as regional geography units are taken up, illustrative examples can be found from the current scene. The teacher may begin the unit or a daily discussion with a current news item, using the recent event as a springboard to the broader topic. If study of the topic is organized on a problems basis, the current affairs aspect is a continuing center of interest throughout the work. The teacher may also consider developments in current affairs in planning the order in which units will be studied. For example, the teacher of civics or problems of democracy can schedule a unit on political parties and elections at a time when a national or local election is to be held. A unit on taxation may be planned for early April. Study of the legislative process may be timed to coincide with a session of Congress or of the state legislature. The teacher of geography can keep his plans flexible, as far as sequence of units is concerned, so that if a crisis develops in a given part of the world—the Middle East, for example—the class can study this area while it is in the news.

Current affairs can also be incorporated effectively into history

courses, to help pupils develop basic concepts and generalizations. One approach is to use the theme of "background of the news." The teacher can introduce a world history unit, whether organized chronologically or topically, with a current affairs assignment that involves the region to be studied or the major theme of the unit. For example, he can introduce a unit on ancient Mediterranean civilization with an examination of recent developments in Egypt and the Middle East and follow the unit with a brief review of current affairs in the same area. As the class, later in the year, studies nineteenth-century nationalism and imperialism, students can examine such related current problems as the rising nationalism and anticolonialism in Africa, the Middle East, or the Far East. By doing so, they can gain a fuller understanding of nationalism and some of the problems arising from it.

History units that are organized around topics present obvious opportunities to use current affairs in developing major concepts. The teacher of United States history may introduce a unit on foreign affairs, for example, with study of the nation's current foreign policy problems. He may then analyze the development of major policies in international affairs and factors which caused shifts in policies in various periods of the national history. Starting a unit on the history of American agriculture with a study of current farm problems, he may move back to trace significant changes in agriculture and problems of farmers from colonial days to the present.

Through such approaches, study of the past and present can be related and students can learn the value of historical perspective for understanding present conditions. They can also learn the need to analyze carefully proposed solutions for current problems which are based on the argument that "history shows." For example, twentieth-century isolationists in the United States have cited, in support of their position, the warnings of Washington and Jefferson against forming alliances with other nations. The student must learn to ask himself such questions as these: Under what conditions did the early presidents offer this advice? In what ways have conditions changed? Are conditions today sufficiently similar to those of the earlier period that the policy of the 1790's and early 1800's is still applicable? Or does today's situation demand a different policy? By such analysis, the student can learn that evidence from history is often useful, but must be interpreted and applied to present-day problems with great caution.

CURRENT AFFAIRS CLUBS. In many schools the classroom study of current affairs is supplemented by an extracurricular study group.

A world affairs club may meet during an activity hour or after school hours. Club members select topics for study, and committees prepare reading lists for each. Before meeting, members prepare themselves on the topic to be considered. The meeting may consist of a general discussion or a talk by an outside speaker followed by discussion. In some schools, such a club conducts forums open to the general student population, provides occasional assembly programs on current affairs, or presents a regularly scheduled news roundup over the school's public-address system. A school's current affairs club occasionally may be invited to furnish a program for civic clubs and other adult study groups, or to broadcast over a local radio station.

The extracurricular club provides enrichment for the limited number of students who participate, but it can never take the place of adequate classroom instruction in current affairs.

PROCEDURES FOR TEACHING CURRENT AFFAIRS

Varied procedures are as important in teaching current affairs as in other aspects of social studies instruction, and for the same reasons—to provide for individual differences, to maintain student interest, and to implement particular objectives. Most of the types of activities and procedures that are discussed in other chapters can be used in current affairs instruction. The following list suggests kinds of procedures that have been effective in teaching current affairs.

Special forms of oral reports

A news summary presented as a radio newscast.

A news analysis, focused on a major topic and presented in the style of a well-known radio or television commentator.

A roundup of world opinion about an important event, such as a national election or a crisis in foreign affairs, presented by a committee with each member speaking as a foreign correspondent based in a capital city.

An end-of-the-year survey of world affairs with predictions of developments on important problems, done in the style of current television programs.

"Model" meetings, such as a congressional committee hearing on a bill, with participating students acting as members of the committee or as representatives of interested groups.

Special forms of class discussion

Discussion of a topic or event, based on individual assignments, in

which information obtained from various sources—magazine articles, newspaper accounts, radio and television broadcasts, attendance at a public meeting, interviews with well-informed adults—is compared, evaluated, and synthesized.

Evaluative discussion of a taped speech, originally presented on radio, or of a news film or filmstrip, which is studied by the class after students have read about the topic involved. In such a discussion, students may evaluate the factual presentation of the tape or film and identify any persuasion devices that are used in it.

“Model” meetings of such bodies as the United States Senate, the state legislature, or the United Nations General Assembly, in which a current issue is debated. Each student may be assigned to represent a particular state, locality, or nation, and present the viewpoints of his constituents.

“Town Meeting” sessions, in which brief presentations concerning an issue are made by two or three students and followed by an open forum.

Other special procedures

Using community resources. For example, the teacher can arrange for individual students or committees to attend public meetings, political rallies, or adult discussion groups such as those sponsored by a local world affairs council or unit of the League of Women Voters; or individual or committee interviews of public officials, political candidates, civic leaders, or other citizens who have a definite point of view on a current issue may be conducted, reported to the class, and discussed.

Exercises emphasizing application of critical thinking skills. For example, rewrite a news article by omitting all color words or expressions of opinion but retaining all statements of fact, to help students realize that news stories are sometimes deliberately written to influence reader opinion. Or, compare headlines with the accompanying articles to note whether the headlines give a correct or slanted impression of the event described in the article. Or compare three different accounts of the same event to observe any discrepancies in facts given or differences in points emphasized.

Action activities growing out of current affairs study. For example, students write letters to appropriate public officials or newspapers expressing conclusions on a current issue and urging the course of action that the class has decided is most promising, or cooperate with community organizations to work on current problems by preparing displays for public buildings, or help with house-to-house canvassing.

The teacher will, of course, discuss with the school administration in advance any procedures for teaching current affairs that involve out-of-school activities or contacts for the students.

HANDLING CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES

Teaching about controversial issues is done most effectively when an adequate setting for their study has been developed. Providing this setting in a school is a joint responsibility of social studies teachers, the school administration, the school board, and community leaders.

It is desirable that the school policy concerning the treatment of controversial issues be definitely stated. Such a statement should explain why controversial issues are studied and the criteria for handling them. If teachers, administrators, school board members, and community leaders work together to formulate this policy statement, the possibility of destructive criticism when controversial issues are treated in the classroom is reduced. Two statements issued by the Committee on Academic Freedom of the National Council for the Social Studies (see Selected References) and similar statements that have been issued by school systems can be used as guides in formulating such a policy statement.

In teaching about controversial issues, the social studies teacher must assume certain obligations. He must select carefully the issues to be studied, taking into account the following questions:

1. Is the issue suitable for study by students of the maturity level represented in my class?
2. Are there available enough materials on various sides of the issue to enable students to draw balanced conclusions about it?
3. Is the topic one about which I am well informed, or can become well informed, so that I can be sure important data and major points of view about it are considered?
4. Is the issue one of continuing significance?
5. Does the study of the issue contribute directly to the objectives of the course in which it is to be presented?
6. Is the issue one that can be considered with relative objectivity in this community at this time?

During class study of a controversial issue, the teacher must accept additional responsibilities. He must ascertain that materials presenting the various viewpoints about the issue circulate freely among students. As students evaluate the materials, the teacher must be sure that they examine sources that give his own viewpoint as critically as they examine others. He must see that all major viewpoints are discussed by the class. If students fail to bring out important points, the teacher may have to introduce them. It is usually better for him to indicate the source of the viewpoint rather than to use the device of presenting it as if it

were his own. To make clearer the fact that the teacher introduces points of view without necessarily accepting them, it is helpful to ask students occasionally to defend points of view contrary to those which they hold. Pupils also may be asked to assume roles, each representing a particular group in society and arguing its point of view. For example, pupils may assume the roles of watchmaker, consumer, producer who sells goods in Switzerland, and diplomat, who are testifying before a Tariff Commission hearing on a proposal to raise tariffs on Swiss watches.

Other safeguards are needed to protect the student's freedom to arrive at his own conclusions. If pupils are given study outlines, these outlines should be in the form of questions rather than topics or sentences, so that pupils will arrive at their own statements of fact and generalizations. Frequently, the questions may be those which the students raise while defining the problem. While the teacher must be alert to point out inconsistencies in pupils' thinking, he should do so in a quiet, friendly manner. Permeating all discussions should be a permissive atmosphere which encourages the expression of ideas contrary to those held by a majority of the class, or by the teacher. To penalize a student for his opinions would effectively cut off open and critical discussion and would indicate to pupils that a teacher is insincere in saying that people should listen to other points of view with an open mind.

One question frequently raised concerning the handling of controversial issues has to do with the expression of opinions by the teacher. Should a teacher limit himself to the role of a discussion leader, never expressing his own opinion? The prestige of the teacher may be such that pupils will be swayed easily by his opinions although he makes every effort to have pupils analyze critically all points of view including his own. The greater the pupils' respect for the teacher, the more likely they are to believe that his opinions must be right. Thus runs one answer to the question.

On the other hand, it is argued, a teacher will lose the respect of students if he constantly evades questions about his opinions. Furthermore, it is difficult for the teacher to keep some bias from creeping into his remarks. Thus it may be better that pupils be put on guard as to the teacher's views and encouraged to challenge his arguments and points of view. Unless the teacher is successful in establishing a permissive atmosphere, such an argument is not valid, but some teachers do an excellent job of getting pupils to think critically even about the teacher's opinions.

Perhaps it is wise for a beginning teacher to be cautious about

expressing his point of view. He may refrain from such an expression unless asked. He may tell pupils that he will not indicate his views until they have drawn their own conclusions. He should, of course, be careful to label his opinions as opinions and to explain the reasoning by which he arrived at them. The teacher must be ready to admit weaknesses in his arguments or point out how his conclusions have changed as he obtained new data. By exhibiting desirable critical behavior, he will enhance its development in pupils.

EVALUATING THE CURRENT AFFAIRS PROGRAM

Too frequently teachers use tests designed to evaluate only the acquisition of information concerning current affairs and controversial issues. Such evaluation instruments may consist of teacher-made tests, tests published by newspapers or magazines, or yearly tests prepared by testing agencies. Unless tests emphasize generalizations, concepts, historical and geographic background of events, and the application of skills, as well as factual information, students are likely to decide that the teacher is most concerned with the acquisition of specific facts and study accordingly.

An evaluation program should emphasize the full range of objectives of the current affairs instruction, both to make pupils aware of the importance placed upon these objectives by the teacher and to help the teacher evaluate pupil growth and his own teaching success. The teacher can use magazine checklists both at the beginning and at the end of the year to evaluate the effect of his current affairs program on reading interests and habits. He can include in tests items that measure the student's ability to evaluate sources of information or to apply skills of critical thinking. The teacher can also keep anecdotal records, noting the extent of pupil reading, comments which indicate interest or its absence, or the tendency of pupils to raise questions based upon background information about current problems. Unless such a variety of information is gathered, the teacher has little basis on which to evaluate progress toward his goals. Without such evidence, he has no guide for improving his handling of current affairs.

A coordinated approach to the study of current affairs is needed to achieve the goals of the program. Such an approach combines aspects of the various plans for current affairs instruction that are in common use. A large share of current affairs study may be related to basic topics in the social studies course. Other events

of great significance may be studied during periods devoted exclusively to them. Events related to topics studied previously may be considered as they occur, either at the beginning of class hours or from time to time during periods given over to news roundups. Pupils who are particularly interested in current affairs may be encouraged to organize a club under faculty supervision for a more detailed examination of a greater variety of topics. Students should also be encouraged, in connection with their regular classwork, to participate in community activities related to current problems.

Developing an effective current affairs program is not unlike dealing with any other aspect of social studies instruction. The program should be organized with particular students and objectives in mind. The teacher must use a variety of approaches, procedures, and materials to accomplish the goals of current affairs instruction, and evaluate student progress toward the entire range of goals. If teachers will treat current affairs instruction as an integral part of the total program, it can make a substantial contribution to the achievement of general social studies objectives.

SOURCES OF MATERIALS

Civic Education Service, Inc., Washington, D.C. Publishes: *Junior Review* (7th-8th-grade level); *Weekly News Review* (9th-10th-grade level); and the *American Observer* (11th-12th-grade level).

American Education Press, Columbus, Ohio. Publishes: *Current Events* (6th-8th-grade level); *Every Week* (8th-10th-grade level); and *Our Times* (10th-12th-grade level).

Scholastic Magazines, New York, New York. Publishes: *Junior Scholastic* (7th-8th-grade level); *World Week* (9th-10th-grade level); and *Senior Scholastic* (11th-12th-grade level).

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

"Accent on the Teaching of Contemporary Affairs," special issue of *Social Education*, 23 (October, 1959).

Articles describe study programs such as the Foreign Policy Great Decisions Program, the North Central Association Foreign Relations Project, and the Center for Information on America *Vital Issues* program. Another article discusses the use of current events periodicals designed for schools.

CARLSON, THEODORE L. "Let's Hold an Election," *Social Education*, 16 (October, 1952), 278-80.

An account of a mock election campaign timed to coincide with a real election.

COMMITTEE ON ACADEMIC FREEDOM OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. "The Treatment of Controversial Issues in the Schools," and "Freedom to Learn and Freedom to Teach," *Social Education*, 15 (May, 1951), 232-36; 17 (May, 1953), 217-20.

Two policy statements adopted by the National Council for the Social Studies Board of Directors. They present criteria for selecting issues for study, evaluating learning materials, and handling controversial issues.

EDGERTON, RONALD B. "Do Pupils Want Teaching of Controversial Issues?" *Clearing House*, 18 (February, 1944), 332-34.

A study of nine junior high school classes which reveals that students prefer teachers who build units around controversial questions and who express their opinions.

ENTIN, JACK W. "Public Opinion in a Social Studies Test Tube," *Social Education*, 17 (May, 1953), 215-16.

Describes the use of mock congressional bodies in a current affairs program.

TYLER, GEORGE F., JR. "Poll Watching Pays Off," *Social Education*, 20 (October, 1956), 283-84.

Recounts the story of high school students who helped reduce election frauds by serving as poll-watchers. An example of an activity in which students may engage as part of their study of current affairs.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

CORBETT, JAMES F., and others. *Current Affairs and Modern Education, A Survey of the Nation's Schools*. New York: New York Times, 1950.

Includes many concrete examples of useful practices in teaching current affairs.

ELLIS, ELMER (ed.). *Education Against Propaganda*, Seventh Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1937.

Provides useful suggestions for teaching pupils to detect persuasion devices and to analyze news.

GROSS, RICHARD E. *How to Handle Controversial Issues*, How to Do It Series, No. 14. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952.

Lists criteria for selecting topics to be studied. Describes the historical approach to controversial issues and examines steps in investigating issues.

PAYNE, JOHN C. (ed.). *The Teaching of Contemporary Affairs*, Twenty-first Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1950.

A useful analysis of the aims of a current affairs program, of the need to obtain community support, of classroom practices, of action activities in which students can engage, and of research on the teaching of current affairs.

SLOW AND GIFTED LEARNERS

The goals of the social studies program are for all students, whether slow, typical, or gifted. Democratic society bestows the basic rights and responsibilities of citizenship upon each adult citizen. The vote of the slow learner (the pupil within the lower range of normal, excluding those of retarded mental ability who may require special classes or institutionalization) will have the same weight as that of the gifted, and a given crime will present the same costs to society whether committed by one or the other. Constructive citizenship in a democracy demands that each person meet at least a minimum standard in performance of civic duties, and that those individuals with the greater potential contribute in proportion. These facts reinforce the need for a social studies program in which each pupil is challenged to develop his abilities as fully as possible.

The discussion of individual differences in Chapter 4 points out the uniqueness of the individual and the multiple bases from which that uniqueness arises. Persons mature at different rates, they exhibit different combinations of physical and emotional traits, they have different backgrounds of experience, and they differ in abilities and interests. Each kind of difference is important to the social studies teacher and must be taken into account as he works with students. The considerable differences in intellectual potential and performance that cause some students to be called "slow" learners and others to be labeled "gifted" call for special applications of the principles of teaching and learning that are presented in earlier chapters. Hence these two groups are singled out for special attention here.

Public education has been criticized as neglecting learners at both ends of the scale. This criticism is undoubtedly justified in

classrooms where individual differences are ignored and a uniform procedure, aimed at the nonexistent "average," is employed. In such a situation all children suffer, but those at the extremes are usually injured the most. Both slow and gifted pupils are likely to develop negative attitudes and indulge in negative behavior because of frustrations of various kinds. The slow learner, experiencing constant failure learns to seek refuge either in apathetic acceptance of the inevitable or in rebellious aggression. The student with high potential, often bored and marking time, too frequently learns to "get by" with sloppy work or turns his talents to organizing the classroom for chaos. In both cases, students are developing habits and attitudes that lead to negative behavior during school years and that make constructive adult citizenship difficult or impossible.

The need to provide for slow and gifted learners is not new, of course. It is, however, more clearly recognized now than formerly, because psychologists and specialists in human development have learned more about individual differences. The need is becoming more urgent, especially in the later years of the secondary school, as the minimum school-leaving age is raised and as a greater proportion of youth remain in high school until graduation. Hand in hand with increased recognition of the need to provide for individual differences of pupils, especially those at the extremes in ability, has come experimentation and the development of techniques to meet the need.

HOMOGENEOUS AND HETEROGENEOUS GROUPING

Homogeneous grouping is grouping according to ability, usually on the basis of some combination of intelligence quotient, achievement test scores, and school marks. After more than a generation of experience with ability grouping, the issue of whether or not it is a useful means of providing for slow and gifted learners in social studies remains unresolved.

Educators who favor homogeneous grouping for social studies classes point out that where instruction is geared to the majority of students in a class, both the slow and the fast learners are neglected. They argue that each student can be helped more effectively, led to success at his own level, and taught under conditions more conducive to good mental health if he is competing with his intellectual peers. They say that identity of opportunity is not equality of opportunity, and that the latter is most nearly provided

when the classroom situation is tailored to a narrower range of ability than is found in a typical heterogeneous group.

Educators who favor heterogeneous grouping for social studies classes point out that the goals of the social studies emphasize the development of socially accepted attitudes and civic behaviors, as well as the teaching of factual information. Even if the latter could be achieved more effectively in homogeneous groups, it is believed that the former cannot; workaday contact with persons of different abilities and interests is necessary to develop desired citizenship skills and attitudes. Advocates of heterogeneous grouping argue that the existence of ability groups in a school establishes a caste structure that has negative effects on the mental health of all students. They believe that differences in ability will be more realistically and positively accepted if treated as one of several kinds of differences to be found in any group of persons. Finally, these educators point out that the arguments for homogeneous grouping imply a conception of teaching that calls for uniform plans, assignments, and treatment for all students in the class, despite the wide range of individual differences present in the most homogeneous group. In their opinion differences in ability, as in other characteristics, are best provided for through use of a variety of learning materials, flexible assignments, and the use of subgroups within a heterogeneous class. These arguments seem to apply especially to social studies, since its goals are conceived in terms of behaviors and attitudes as well as factual information.

The decision for homogeneous or heterogeneous grouping is made in most schools at the administrative level. Most social studies teachers, therefore, have the practical problem of working as best they can in one situation or the other, depending on the school system in which they accept employment. In a small high school, where there is only one class group in a grade, heterogeneous grouping will obviously prevail. In many of the larger high schools, with enrollments of 500 or more, some form of ability grouping is used. This chapter suggests ways of providing for slow and gifted learners in both homogeneous and heterogeneous social studies classes.

WORKING WITH SLOW LEARNERS

Many people, including the teachers who judged Edison and Newton to be of low ability, have believed incorrectly that they could identify slow learners at sight. The slow learner differs from

other students not in kind but in degree, and the signs of his difference are often subtle.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SLOW LEARNERS. Educators have agreed on a rough classification of slow learners as including those persons with intelligence quotients between 70 or 75 and 90. They hasten, however, to caution against any literal application of this rule. The indicative rather than definitive nature of the intelligence quotient must be taken into account, and the fact that it reflects a certain type of intelligence is increasingly recognized. About one-fifth of our total school population falls into the category of slow learners, under this definition. The proportion is higher in the elementary grades than in the secondary school, but it is increasing in the latter as more pupils stay in school longer.

With regard to physical characteristics, the slow learner, in general, follows the same developmental patterns as other persons. Although he is likely to be somewhat less well developed than others of his age group and more poorly coordinated, there is as much variation in these characteristics among slow learners as among members of other segments of the population. Because slow learners are often overage for their school grade, teachers who do not carefully study their pupils as individuals may gain the impression that they develop more rapidly. Defects in hearing, vision, and speech are considerably more frequent among slow learners than among others, and malnutrition is more common. A large proportion of slow learners come from homes in the lower socioeconomic segments of the population, with consequently impoverished backgrounds of experience.

The slow learner, contrasted with students of higher ability, tends to be more dependent and physically timid, somewhat less self-confident and less quick to achieve friendships. He develops in such traits as cooperation, obedience, gregariousness, and kindness in the same way and to the same degree as others, provided that he does not encounter disastrous experiences at school or at home. He has the same needs for affection, security, success, and self-acceptance that others have.

Like other pupils, the slow learner learns from his experiences. Because his learning equipment differs in degree he learns less rapidly than those with greater ability and his attention span tends to be shorter. He learns the specific and concrete more readily than the abstract. He tends to be a poor reader. Comparing, generalizing, and reasoning are difficult for him, or even impossible at higher levels. If he is truly a slow learner because of limited capacity, rather than a functional slow learner because of such

factors as inadequate background or health handicaps, his reasoning ability cannot be developed beyond a certain point. He can, however, be helped to reason within the limits of his ability. Since evidence shows that few people, whether slow, of middle ability, or gifted, ever fully develop their potential abilities, it is apparent that something can be done to help even the slow learner improve in his reasoning and other intellectual skills.

The slow learner tends to be consistently slow in all activities, but like other persons he is more successful in some efforts than in others—and the areas of relative success will differ from individual to individual. The notion that all slow learners are likely to be more successful in manual than in intellectual activity must be discarded. There is as much variation among them in their areas of success as among members of other groups in the school population.

HELPING SLOW LEARNERS. The facts mentioned above suggest that in order to work more effectively with slow learners the social studies teacher should do the following:

1. Try to understand what it means to be a slow learner, to "think yourself" into his mind and experience. This is basic to developing a positive attitude toward the slow student, and an effective rapport with him. Remember that work in social studies involves many abstract learnings, the most difficult kind for the slow learner. Most social studies teachers are bright, at least relatively so, or they could not have achieved the degree of academic success in the social sciences that is required of them. They are accustomed to dealing with abstractions. They have associated chiefly with reasonably bright people. They have experienced at least a degree of success in their academic and personal lives. Only through conscious effort and imagination can the typical social studies teacher understand the limits a slow learner faces, the resulting attitudes that he may form, the urgency of his need for security and recognition as an individual.

2. Identify the slow learners, while studying pupils in a class. Beware of labeling based on haphazard observation. Instead, seek actual data of the sorts described on pages 55-56. Attempt in each case to find the reasons for the student's slow learning, remembering that many slow learners can be helped toward normalcy if the causes are remediable. The school can do something about such conditions as poor vision, faulty hearing, and inadequate background of experience. The social studies teacher has a responsibility to help discover such conditions and work with other school personnel to alleviate them.

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3. Seek to discover for each slow learner, as for every other student, the areas in which he has strong interests and those in which he performs most adequately, as well as his areas of weakness. The first can be capitalized upon, the second will suggest special attention that is needed.

4. Work to establish a constructive rapport with the slow learner, and to develop a classroom climate in which he will be accepted and can function effectively. The friendly, personalized interest of the teacher is likely to be more important to him than to the better students.

5. Make it clear to the student involved in disciplinary problems that while his behavior is unacceptable and must be changed, he is accepted as a person who can do the right thing.

6. Break the lockstep of uniform requirements and assignments. Whether slow learners are grouped together or scattered through heterogeneous groups, each one is a person with his own individual characteristics. Take this into account by providing alternate reading assignments in materials of different levels of difficulty, so that each student can find (or be guided to) the assignment he can read. Provide some choice of activities, guiding the slow learner to the simpler, more concrete ones, based on his textbook reading or on a single, easy reading reference. Establish the attitude that it is normal and natural for students to use different sources and carry out different activities because the class learns more that way.

7. Recognize that for very slow readers it may be necessary to prepare some reading materials. Featherstone gives suggestions about how to do so (see Selected Readings).

8. Adapt the curriculum content presented to slow learners, emphasizing those aspects that slower students can learn and have reason to learn.

9. Give instruction and drill to improve reading skills, using diagnostic and developmental procedures suggested in Chapter 9. In a class composed chiefly of slow learners, a great proportion of class time will be spent in reading instruction for the entire group. In a heterogeneous class, the social studies teacher will administer more drill exercises on an individual or committee basis. Even in a homogeneous class of slow learners, however, reading skills will vary so much that individual and small-group help must supplement class study.

10. Use many sensory materials and concrete experiences such as films, still pictures, field trips, interviews, anecdotes, and dramatizations. Slow learners especially need these kinds of materials

and experiences; most students will profit from a greater use of them than is commonly made in secondary social studies classrooms.

11. Use group procedures as soon as teacher and students are ready for them. Organize groups sometimes on the basis of interest or random selection, and sometimes on the basis of ability. This will enable the social studies teacher in a heterogeneous class to use ability grouping for a learning task where it is important to have slow learners together, and yet avoid stigmatizing them. Establish as normal the procedure of one subgroup working at its own task while the rest of the class does something else. Sometimes the subgroup will consist of slow learners doing reading exercises, sometimes it will be a heterogeneous committee planning a dramatization or other activity.

12. Make assignments for the slow learner especially definite, so that he will know exactly what is expected of him, and how to go about it. In preparing guide sheets, give specific, simply stated study questions for the easier alternate reading assignments. In making up lists of activities from which students may select, spell out the directions for the simpler projects that the slower learners will probably choose.

13. Set up occasional "study teams" in which better students lead a team in study or review of a particular assignment. If handled tactfully and not overused, this procedure will benefit both the superior and the slow pupil.

14. Evaluate frequently and specifically, letting the student know what progress he is making. In a homogeneous group of slow learners, this may mean administering some exercises, notebook checks, and quizzes to the entire class at frequent intervals. In a heterogeneous group it may mean somewhat more frequent conferences with the slower students during supervised work periods, and more detailed checking on their progress with assignments.

15. Use a variety of procedures for review, and provide for frequent reviews and reteaching of materials to slow learners.

16. Include on every test enough items which slow learners can answer correctly that they can know they have learned something (if, of course, they have made the effort). The items should be arranged in order of ascending difficulty, so that the slow learner will not bog down on the most difficult and never reach those which he can do correctly.

17. Provide many real opportunities for success and recognition for the slow learner. Let him do at least his share of errands, monitor jobs, and so on. When student work is posted, include

3. Seek to discover for each slow learner, as for every other student, the areas in which he has strong interests and those in which he performs most adequately, as well as his areas of weakness. The first can be capitalized upon, the second will suggest special attention that is needed.

4. Work to establish a constructive rapport with the slow learner, and to develop a classroom climate in which he will be accepted and can function effectively. The friendly, personalized interest of the teacher is likely to be more important to him than to the better students.

5. Make it clear to the student involved in disciplinary problems that while his behavior is unacceptable and must be changed, he is accepted as a person who can do the right thing.

6. Break the lockstep of uniform requirements and assignments. Whether slow learners are grouped together or scattered through heterogeneous groups, each one is a person with his own individual characteristics. Take this into account by providing alternate reading assignments in materials of different levels of difficulty, so that each student can find (or be guided to) the assignment he can read. Provide some choice of activities, guiding the slow learner to the simpler, more concrete ones, based on his textbook reading or on a single, easy reading reference. Establish the attitude that it is normal and natural for students to use different sources and carry out different activities because the class learns more that way.

7. Recognize that for very slow readers it may be necessary to prepare some reading materials. Featherstone gives suggestions about how to do so (see Selected Readings).

8. Adapt the curriculum content presented to slow learners, emphasizing those aspects that slower students can learn and have reason to learn.

9. Give instruction and drill to improve reading skills, using diagnostic and developmental procedures suggested in Chapter 9. In a class composed chiefly of slow learners, a great proportion of class time will be spent in reading instruction for the entire group. In a heterogeneous class, the social studies teacher will administer more drill exercises on an individual or committee basis. Even in a homogeneous class of slow learners, however, reading skills will vary so much that individual and small-group help must supplement class study.

10. Use many sensory materials and concrete experiences such as films, still pictures, field trips, interviews, anecdotes, and dramatizations. Slow learners especially need these kinds of materials

dren have shown that in adult life, as a group, these individuals earned larger incomes, had more stable homes with fewer divorces, and had a lower incidence of mental disease and of crime than was true of the general population.

Gifted students tend to learn more rapidly and more permanently than their classmates. They are usually competent in reading and develop other learning skills easily and rapidly. They are capable of reasoning at more abstract levels than most of their agemates. They are usually able to learn more, more easily, through the printed page or other vicarious experiences. Their ability to concentrate is usually greater, their span of attention is longer, and their range of interests broader. Most gifted children have considerable intellectual curiosity, and are likely to ask more than their share of questions, and more penetrating ones. They are frequently much more capable of self-direction and self-criticism than are their more typical classmates.

In spite of his great potential the gifted child often has his problems in academic learning and in social adjustment. Undue pressure during childhood from parents and teachers or unwise acceleration may subject him to harmful strain as he tries to make social adjustments for which he is not ready. Sometimes family, teachers, and school exploit a gifted youngster, making him always the center of attention, giving him always the solo role, so that he has little opportunity to learn and practice the essential skills of cooperative work. Too often the gifted child learns that he can do the required work with half an effort, and forms the habit of doing exactly that. His potential is being wasted and habits and attitudes that may hinder the later development of his potential are being built up, even while he is in the elementary grades. Too often the same conditions persist in the secondary school, with one standard for all, and that standard pitched at the level achievable by the middle group. As his intellectual powers mature during his secondary school years the gifted youngster urgently needs challenging, significant work to do. Yet a counterforce is in operation. During these same adolescent years, when acceptance by the peer group and conformity to its standards are so important, the gifted boy—and, even more, the gifted girl—may find it a real disadvantage in the typical secondary school to be marked as a “brain” or whatever the current slang expression is. *Deliberate underachievement* may be resorted to as a kind of self-protection.

HELPING GIFTED LEARNERS. Given these facts about the characteristics of gifted students, what can the social studies teacher

creditable examples of that done by the slow learner. Most slow learners, with adequate guidance, can do some work worthy of being posted, and if varied assignments have been given, the problem of disadvantageous comparison by students is lessened.

In working with slow learners, the social studies teacher must remember that, by the time they reach the secondary school, most of them have encountered many discouragements, if not outright failures, in social studies and in other subjects. For this reason, they are likely to have negative attitudes toward social studies and probably toward teachers and school in general. The social studies teacher cannot expect to perform the miracle of reversing such attitudes in a day, a month, or even a year. He can reasonably expect to modify the slow learner's attitudes and behavior in a positive direction if he applies procedures such as those suggested above, and consistently maintains an attitude of friendly, patient helpfulness.

WORKING WITH GIFTED LEARNERS

The gifted learner, like the slow learner, cannot be recognized through casual observation, nor identified on the basis of intelligence quotient alone. It is increasingly recognized that there are kinds of giftedness other than the possession of intellectual capacity indicated by a high intelligence quotient. Creative performance in the artistic, mechanical, and scientific fields and in fields of social relationships indicate giftedness as much as does high general intelligence. It seems to be true, however, that creativity and special talent in any field are usually accompanied by superior intellectual potential. As the slow learner tends to follow a pattern of slow learning in his various fields of activity, so the gifted student seems usually to be highly endowed in many areas.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GIFTED LEARNERS. In terms of general intelligence scores, the gifted are considered to be those with an intelligence quotient of 140 or above on a Stanford-Binet or other individually administered test. Some school systems, however, have used 130 or even 120 as the cut-off point in selecting children for special classes. Contrary to the popular stereotype of the pale, undergrown, nervous child prodigy, gifted children tend to be healthier, more fully developed, and better adjusted socially than most of their agemates. They vary, of course, in their rate of maturation, just as do slow learners and children in the middle ranges of intelligence. Terman's follow-up studies of gifted chil-

topic the class is studying at the moment. (It is assumed that all students will be encouraged to do so at the level of their ability.) Make available magazines dealing with contemporary issues. The gifted student should be constantly broadening and deepening his background of information about sociocivic affairs and the suggestion of adult interests, since it helps him bridge over to the adult world, is one to which he is likely to respond.

6. Check the gifted student's control of social studies skills and insist on high standards of application in situations that are functional to him. Even more than the slow or typical student, he will reject map-reading, outlining, or note-taking exercises that are not clearly useful in his work. Yet many gifted youngsters need, as much or even more than other students, to have practice in the self-discipline of exact, careful work habits. Because they can jump ahead to the "general idea," they may be impatient with the intermediate but essential steps. This is even more true in social studies than in such subjects as mathematics or foreign language.

7. Provide true enrichment work for the bright student who finishes basic assignments long before the rest of the class. More of the same work is not necessarily nor even usually rewarding or enriching. Knowing that the consequence of working efficiently will be another, extra assignment of the same type will hardly encourage good work habits. When the map exercise is completed ahead of schedule, or the study outline has been filled out, let the gifted child turn to the classroom collection of newspapers and magazines, to the folder of clippings and pictures about the current unit, to the historical novel he is reading, or to another such activity on which he may or may not report to the teacher or the class.

8. Provide many opportunities for the gifted student to learn and practice cooperative work skills and accompanying skills of human relations. Since his potential contribution is greater than that of other students, it is very important to society that the talented youth learn how to be a democratic leader, not a dictator, and a constructive follower, not an obstructionist. The fact is that students of all levels of ability must work together for any of them to learn cooperative work skills adequately.

9. Use appropriate sensory materials to teach the gifted. Remember that the gifted student learns through vivid, direct experiences just as do others. The difference is that he learns more rapidly, and often sees more, hears more, remembers more, and uses more of the material presented in a film, a record, a map, or a field trip. He can proceed more rapidly than can others to abstractions, but he must have an experiential base for the abstrac-

do to help them? Many of the suggestions which follow resemble those for helping the slow learner, although different applications are necessary.

1. Seek to identify students of superior potential, as you study the pupils in the class. Remember the limitations of intelligence quotients, observe all available data, and consider early conclusions as tentative.

2. Remember that the gifted student needs a mature guide who can stimulate his interests and show him how to develop his potential. Sometimes teachers, especially beginners, have a feeling of awe or even fear when they encounter a brilliant pupil. Perhaps they feel they have little to offer such a person, or that they cannot "keep ahead" of him. They forget that their job is to guide the student, not compete with him, and that if they are properly prepared for teaching they have maturity, knowledge about the learning process, and keys to understanding the social sciences. In short, they have to offer exactly what the bright student needs.

3. Consider the gifted student's peculiar interests and needs as an individual. It is as easy to develop a stereotype of giftedness as it is of slow-learningness, and as harmful. If teaching a class made up of superior students, recognize that there will be a great variety of interests, needs, and talents just as in a heterogeneous group. Provide for them through varied assignments.

4. Encourage self-direction and self-evaluation by gifted pupils. It may be possible to move into advanced levels of teacher-student planning more rapidly in a homogeneous class of bright pupils than with a heterogeneous group. Most members of the class are likely to be more skilled in self-direction to begin with and may develop this capacity more readily than less talented students. In a heterogeneous group, guide the gifted student to choose learning activities in which he can plan and expand on the original suggestion instead of merely following directions. For example, activity # 24 in the resource unit given in Appendix A is more appropriate for the gifted student than # 23. If he is well accepted by the rest of the group, and if the teacher is adept, the superior student may help teach the skills of group planning and self-evaluation in a heterogeneous group while growing in these areas himself.

5. Encourage the gifted student to choose the more mature assignments from alternative readings. Make available adult-level materials including analytical as well as descriptive treatments of the topic under study, and guide the bright student to them. Encourage him to read widely on current affairs as well as on the

13. Expect and help the gifted student to reach a superior standard in his work, but avoid the much overused "with your ability you should do better" approach. This approach confuses giftedness with a maturity that many adults never achieve; many gifted youngsters encounter it so often that they may come to regard their talents as of doubtful value to them as persons. An invitation to the student to evaluate the strong and weak points of his recent work, a sympathetic inquiry about problems that may be interfering with his progress, or a straightforward comment on needed improvements as seen by the teacher are more constructive and more likely to be well received by students.

14. Avoid treating gifted students in ways that single them out from others and make their acceptance by peers more difficult. In working with a homogeneous group, the teacher must avoid inappropriate comparisons with classes of lower ability. Gifted students should be recognized for successful work, of course, but not in such manner as to encourage any existing intellectual snobbery among them. In a heterogeneous class, the teacher must avoid giving the superior student disproportionate recognition that may cause him to be regarded as "teacher's pet." The teacher who studies and deals with each student as an individual will not fall into this trap.

The basic problems the social studies teacher must solve to work effectively with slow and gifted learners are the same ones he must solve to teach typical pupils. The key to meeting the needs of the slow and the gifted, as well as students in between, is individualized instruction. Individualizing instruction does not mean teaching each student individually. It does not mean that each student in a classroom is working alone nor that each has a completely different assignment from the others. A tutorial plan is obviously impossible in our system of mass education. It would also be undesirable in a field such as social studies, where interaction among students is essential for the development of the social learnings and civic skills that are important goals of instruction.

Individualizing instruction in social studies means knowing the students in a class as individuals, and setting up classroom situations and assignments that are sufficiently flexible to allow students to work individually at some times and as a group at other times. It means abandoning the lockstep system that requires (or fruitlessly tries to require) each pupil to do the same work at the same time at the same rate, and provides that all be judged by the same predetermined standard. Individualizing instruction in social stud-

tions. In social studies, with the wide range of topics, times, places, and cultures that are studied, the use of sensory materials to provide this base is important to all students. Most sensory materials can be interpreted or applied at different levels. Many social studies films, for example, can be used effectively with slow, typical, and/or gifted learners if appropriate guide questions are set for the study of the film and if the follow-up is adjusted to the group. In an "honors" class, the questions and discussion may be devoted almost entirely to an evaluation of information presented in the film by comparing it with that gained from other sources, to an analysis of its significance, and to the development of generalizations. In a heterogeneous group, many of the questions may call for summary and organization of the information in the film, but analytical questions should also be used to challenge the gifted student to study the material at a deeper level.

10. Encourage the gifted student to become acquainted with and use a wide variety of out-of-school resources for his social studies work. Even more than other students, he can profit from independent visits to libraries, museums, governmental institutions, and community agencies in pursuit of social studies information. He can make these visits after school or on week ends, or it may be possible to arrange occasional trips during school hours for older students who have demonstrated responsible behavior.

11. Give the gifted student his share of classroom chores, such as arranging the bulletin board, caring for the classroom library, or running errands, but avoid making him a "man Friday" as a means of keeping him busy. Carrying a normal share of such activities will probably help his status in the group and his own development as a group member. But the teacher who uses chores as busy work for the gifted is robbing the bright student of opportunities to enrich his social studies experiences and depriving slower learners of a chance to do jobs they could perform successfully.

12. Recognize and help the gifted student develop his special talent, but do not exploit it. The bright youngster with a flair for cartooning, for example, can doubtless produce in every unit some attractive bulletin board materials that can be posted to impress supervisors, parents, and other visitors. The youngster may be eager to do so, as his special project for each unit, and would undoubtedly be gaining experience in a favorite activity. This is probably not the best use of the student's time to increase his understanding of social studies, learn basic skills, and, in general, develop his abilities. He needs to explore other ways of studying and reacting to social studies information and problems.

HENRY, NELSON B. (ed.). *Education for the Gifted*. The Fifty-seventh Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.

A comprehensive treatment of problems, procedures, and programs.

INGRAM, CHRISTINE P. *Education of the Slow-Learning Child*, 3d ed. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1960.

Emphasizes understanding the whole child, integrating and utilizing childhood experiences and activities as a basis for learning. Describes teaching methods at different chronological age levels.

SCHEIFELE, MARIAN. *The Gifted Child in the Regular Classroom*, Practical Suggestions for Teaching, No. 12. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Pp. 84.

Describes procedures for identifying the gifted, problems of the gifted child, and enrichment techniques.

SUMPTION, MERLE R., and LUECKING, EVELYN M. *Education of the Gifted*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1960.

Comprehensive presentation of research and theory, of organization and procedures, and of practices and personnel contributing to solidly based and well thought out programs for the education of the gifted.

ies means offering students choices of materials and activities, and helping them learn to make wise choices in terms of what they can do and are interested in achieving.

The suggestions given in this chapter for teaching slow and gifted learners are applications to these specific groups of the principles basic to individualized instruction. All students will benefit from social studies instruction in which these principles are applied.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

"Advanced Placement Programs in Secondary Schools," special issue of *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 42:242 (December, 1958). Pp. 262.

Articles describe the history of advanced placement programs and also outline some of the courses, including courses in the social studies.

BOLZAU, EMMA L. "Adapting American History to Slow Learners," *Social Education*, 14 (March, 1950), 115-17.

Suggests ways of modifying the curriculum and teaching methods for slow learners.

BRADON, HENRY W. "A History Program for Able Students," *Social Education*, 22 (March, 1958), 107-9.

Describes courses in American, Modern European, and Far Eastern history. Emphasis is placed upon reading and upon research problems.

CARPENTER, HELEN McCracken. "Teaching World History to Poor Readers," *Social Education*, 15 (May, 1951), 223-25, 243.

Advocates fewer units in special classes for slow learners or adjusting study guides for heterogeneous classes.

GOODLAD, JOHN I. "Classroom Organization," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3d ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. Pp. 221-26.

Summarizes research findings on homogeneous versus heterogeneous grouping.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

FEATHERSTONE, W. B. *Teaching the Slow Learner*, Practical Suggestions for Teaching, No. 1, rev. ed. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953. Pp. 118.

A storehouse of ideas for working with slow learners. Includes instructions for preparing reading materials.

FRENCH, JOSEPH L. (ed.). *Educating the Gifted: A Book of Readings*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1959.

Presents digests of research on characteristics and adjustment of the gifted, effects of acceleration and special classes and factors related to underachievement. Outlines selected programs for the gifted.

GAVIAN, RUTH WOOD (ed.). *The Social Education of the Academically Talented*, Curriculum Bulletin, No. 10. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1958. Pp. 101.

Clarifies issues and general principles of teaching the gifted. Describes special programs at all school levels, and indicates principles and procedures for evaluating the progress of the gifted.

Evaluation results can be used to guide student learning only if there are frequent and continuing checks on student growth. The social studies teacher may use pretests, polls, and attitude scales at the beginning of a unit, and will modify the scope of the unit and the specific assignments according to the results obtained. In the course of a unit, students use and check various exercises, take quizzes at appropriate points, and do remedial work that is indicated by their performance on these instruments. At the end of the unit, results of the unit test and a summary of other evaluative measures guide the teacher in planning additional review or in working with individuals or small groups on particular skills. Frequent and continuing evaluation helps the student be aware of his progress and of the aspects of his work that need improvement, just as it guides the teacher in adjusting plans and procedures.

Evaluation should be based on objective measurements to the greatest extent possible. Not all aspects of student progress in the social studies are susceptible of such precise measurement, however. Where objective measurement cannot be achieved, the teacher must use careful observation and description of behavior as a basis for estimating student progress toward desired objectives.

The instruments used should be appropriate to the purpose of the specific evaluation. Checklists, inventories, and observations of behavior, for example, are useful in evaluating interests, appreciations, and factors of personal adjustment. Essay questions can be effective in testing the student's understanding of generalizations and his ability to apply them in new situations. Some kinds of objective test items can be used to measure command of skills, others for testing recall of information. The varied purposes that the social studies teacher has in evaluating student progress makes it necessary for him to select the most appropriate instruments for each purpose.

An effective program of evaluation is carried on so as to develop positive student attitudes. Using test results to help pupils overcome weaknesses, as well as for grading purposes, will encourage such attitudes. Frequent evaluations will remove much of the threat from the tests and other evaluative measures used at the end of a block of work or a grading period. The teacher can give students self-confidence in test situations by stressing such test-taking techniques as apportioning time according to the weight of the parts of the test, and outlining the answer to an essay question before beginning to write. The student will also respond positively to evaluations that he recognizes to be fair and impartial.

An effective program of evaluation furnishes a basis for in-

EVALUATING STUDENT GROWTH

Evaluation is an essential part of instruction in social studies, as in any other curriculum area. It involves all attempts to appraise student growth toward accepted objectives, and should be integrated with other aspects of instruction.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EVALUATION PROGRAM

Effective evaluation is carried on in relation to the total range of instructional goals. In social studies, therefore, the teacher seeks to measure student growth in command of skills, expansion of interests, and development of desirable appreciations and attitudes, as well as in understanding of concepts and retention of knowledge.

In an effective evaluation program, the results are used to guide the learning of the individual student by judging his progress, diagnosing his difficulties, and planning for remedial instruction. Early in the school year, for example, the social studies teacher may administer a variety of evaluation instruments to ascertain students' aptitudes, interests, attitudes, and levels of achievement. On the basis of the results, he can adjust course content and instructional methods to the needs of individuals and of the class as a whole. Thus, if the teacher discovers that many pupils in a class are deficient in their use of particular skills, he must review or reteach those skills. If only a few pupils have inadequate command of the specific skills, the teacher must plan ways of helping these pupils while the rest of the class engage in other activities. Or the diagnostic measures may reveal that certain areas of course content or skills need relatively little emphasis because pupils are well prepared in them. Evaluations of pupil learning made during the year must be applied in a similar manner.

and sentence structure of the items are likely to make the test partly a measure of the reading skill of the younger pupils.

✓ An evaluation device should be reliable; that is, it should achieve consistent results if readministered without opportunity for pupils to study between the first and second testings. ✓ If a twelfth-grade government test were readministered to ninth-graders, for example, it could give comparable results but remain primarily a reading test. ✓ A valid test, however, must be fairly reliable, or the teacher cannot be sure that it measures what he is trying to evaluate.

Reliability is affected by a number of factors. ✓ Generally, the reliability of any evaluation instrument is increased as the number of items or samplings of the behavior evaluated are increased. ✓ Thus a questionnaire concerning the time spent viewing television for one day might give very different results if administered on any other day in the week. ✓ The reliability of a test is reduced as the chances of guessing the right answers increase. ✓ The pupil who guesses correctly one day might not guess the same way if the test were repeated. Reliability is also affected by the degree to which the test is scored objectively. If a teacher grades a test one way on one day and another on the next, or if he grades one paper one way and another paper on a different basis, the scores on a test are not a reliable index of pupils' achievement.

An effective instrument must discriminate among the various levels of achievement attained by students; that is, it must indicate the superior and the poor performance and the steps of attainment in between. To do this a test must include items ranging from easy to difficult, with an adequate proportion of items at various levels of difficulty. A test composed chiefly of easy items will result in a massing of scores close together and will not differentiate the superior from the average, or the average from the poor. A test composed chiefly of difficult items will differentiate the best students from the rest of the class but will not indicate degrees of achievement among the rest of the group. ✓

✓ Ease of administration and interpretation is another characteristic of useful evaluation instruments. If the teacher is to use a test or other instrument in the regular instructional process, it must be one he can administer without undue time or effort and without highly specialized training. He must also be able to interpret the results with a minimum expenditure of time, and be able to do so even though he is not a specialist in evaluation.

The social studies teacher has available or can construct a wide variety of evaluation instruments that meet the requirements suggested by these four characteristics of validity, reliability, discrimi-

formative reports to parents about the progress of their children. Parents have the right and the obligation to know in detail what progress their sons and daughters are making. They need this information in order to cooperate with the school for their children's welfare, and to help their sons and daughters plan their school programs and their post-high school careers. The more varied and complete the evaluation program, the more meaningful the reports to parents can be made.

Finally, in an effective evaluation program, the results are used to judge curriculum content and organization and teaching methods that have been employed. If student progress is below a reasonable expectation, the thoughtful teacher will not overlook the possibility that the curriculum or instructional methods, or both, are responsible and need improvement.

EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS

To employ wisely the various kinds of evaluation instruments from which he can choose, the teacher must know what aspects of social studies learning each can measure and how to select or construct each type. He must also be aware of the general characteristics of effective evaluation instruments.

CHARACTERISTICS OF EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS. To be useful, an evaluation instrument must be valid; that is, it must measure what it purports to measure with reference to the particular group of students involved. If the test is intended to measure a specific ability such as map-reading, or knowledge of a particular topic, such as governmental processes, it must be made up of items that are focused on that ability or topic, and the items must be properly constructed. Items which contain clues that permit brighter students to guess the answer without knowledge of the topic tested reduce the validity of the test. Ambiguous wording in directions or in items will turn the test into a measure of the pupils' ability to guess the teacher's intentions, and make it invalid for the ostensible purpose at hand.

A test may include appropriate items without being valid for a particular group, however. For example, if pupils have previously encountered the examples or exact terminology used in the items, the test will measure their ability to recall and is invalid for the purpose for which it was designed. Again, a test intended to measure understanding of government may be valid for twelfth-grade students of problems of democracy for whom it was constructed, but not for ninth-grade students of civics. The vocabulary

processes. Their low scores indicate a failure in recall of facts rather than lack of ability to apply the processes. Even questions that call for comparisons, explanations, summaries, and conclusions are tests of recall if the anticipated answers are similar to those that have been presented in class or in the textbook. Finally, essay tests do not save teacher time, although questions can be constructed fairly quickly, for much more time is required to grade them properly than is needed to score an objective examination.

The limitations of essay questions can be minimized by careful attention to the selection and wording of questions, and by more precise grading procedures. An essay question can be made definite, with specific limits indicated, in order to reduce ambiguity. For example, instead of asking pupils to "Discuss the effects of war on civil liberties" the teacher can phrase the question in this manner: "Compare the treatment of civil liberties in the United States during the undeclared naval war with France, the Civil War, World War I, and World War II. On the basis of this comparison, what generalizations can you make about the effects of war on civil liberties?"

The teacher can improve the reliability of his essay tests by making grading more precise through procedures such as the following:

1. Before administering the test, set up standards for grading. Assign an appropriate weight to each question and write or outline a "model" answer for it. Decide, also, whether to consider organization, grammar, and spelling in assigning scores. Some teachers give separate grades for content and for organization and English usage, thus helping pupils identify their weaknesses and strengths.

2. In administering the test, instruct pupils to turn their papers upside down and sign each sheet on the back so that the name will not be visible as the paper is read.

3. In grading the papers, work through the set grading one question. As the question is read, divide the papers into five piles, using the classifications of excellent, good, average, poor, and no credit. When the first question on each paper has been read, review each pile to see whether or not the answers on papers within the pile are of equal quality. The teacher may find that some papers need to be shifted to another pile, because the review shows that the answer is of higher or lower quality than others in the pile in which he had placed it. After the review, mark on each paper the point value of the answer to the first question. If it is given a weight of 20, the point values may be assigned as 0 (no

nation, and ease of administration and interpretation. The types that are most commonly used are discussed in the following pages.

ESSAY TEST QUESTIONS. On an essay test the student writes a composition in response to each question. For example, a class may be instructed to discuss a question such as the following: What similarities and differences existed between the actions of the President of the United States during the Whiskey Rebellion and the Little Rock school integration crisis?

The essay question is useful for a number of purposes, and has certain advantages. It can be employed to test the ability of pupils to organize information and to express themselves clearly in writing. If properly constructed, it measures their depth of knowledge about a single topic rather than calling for superficial knowledge about many topics. The essay question can be used to test pupils' ability to interpret and evaluate information. It can be constructed in a relatively short time and can be administered by writing it on the blackboard, in contrast with objective test items which take longer to construct and must be duplicated.

Some teachers believe that the essay examination motivates better study habits than does an objective test, and there is some evidence to support this view. The results of some studies indicate that pupils who expect an essay test tend to use better study procedures than do those who are preparing for an objective test. More of them try to organize their knowledge about the topics they have studied, and relate new information to what they have learned in the past. Pupils who have prepared for an essay test perform at a generally higher level on essay questions and do as well on objective items, when compared with pupils who have expected an objective test. Consequently, many teachers argue that every unit test should include at least one essay question, and that students should be so informed.

Essay tests are used less frequently than in the past, however, because they have several limitations. The essay test is less reliable than an objective test since the scoring tends to be subjective, and because it samples only a small part of what pupils have learned. Also, unless questions are worded carefully, pupils may be able to answer them with superficial generalities that are difficult to evaluate precisely. The validity of an essay test may be low if the purpose is to test anything beyond recall of information. For example, the teacher may design a test to evaluate ability to organize, to make comparisons, or to draw conclusions, but some students may not have the information needed in carrying out these

3. Place the blank near or at the end of the statement so that the student has to read the item only once to know what the question is. The item, "The — is the branch of the United States Congress in which each state is represented on the basis of population," requires the student to read the item and then return to the first part to write the answer. For ease in scoring, however, a second blank in which the student is to write his answer may be provided in the left-hand margin.

4. Do not phrase questions in the exact words of the textbook or classroom presentation. If stereotyped language is used, the item will test rote memory rather than recall based on understanding of the required information.

5. Do not provide extraneous clues that hint at the correct response. Provide blanks of the same length in all items, regardless of the length of the word or phrase that is required. Avoid grammatical clues, such as the use of "an" in this item: "A body of land which is not so large as a continent and is surrounded by water is called an —."

True-False Items. The true-false item is a statement which the pupil is required to mark *true*, +, or *yes* if it is true, or *false*, 0, or *no* if it is not true. True-false items have the advantage that a pupil can work through them fairly rapidly, so that his knowledge of a broad range of content can be sampled in a relatively brief testing period. The teacher can score a true-false test rapidly and objectively.

Limitations that are inherent in the true-false item, however, make it perhaps the least useful type of evaluation instrument for social studies classes. The statement that is used in the true-false item must be completely true or false, with no exceptions or qualifications. If a statement that is intended to be marked "true" is only approximately true, the better student is likely to be penalized because he thinks of the exceptions and marks the item "false." Most generalizations, relationships, and explanations of events that are significant in social studies cannot be stated in brief sentences that are absolutely true or false. Therefore, the proper use of the true-false item in social studies instruction is largely restricted to testing recall of specifics. Constructing effective true-false items in social studies requires time and careful work on the part of the teacher. Another limitation of the true-false item is that the pupil has a 50-50 chance of guessing the correct response. The reliability of a true-false test is low, therefore, unless the teacher uses a scoring formula to correct for guessing or employs a modified form of the item as suggested below.

credit), 5 (poor), 10 (average), 15 (good), or 20 (excellent). Shuffle the papers, proceed with the second question in the same manner, continuing until all questions have been graded.

OBJECTIVE TEST ITEMS. Unlike essay tests, objective test items have only one correct or "best" answer, and can be scored objectively and rapidly. They can be used to sample the student's learning about a range of topics, and to appraise his ability to apply a variety of skills. It takes time to construct effective objective items, but over a period of years a teacher can build a file of questions that will enable him to construct an objective test rapidly. Each type of objective item is useful for specific purposes.

Completion Items. In answering the completion item, the student is required to complete a statement by filling in a blank or blanks where words are omitted from a statement. (The Constitution of the United States was ratified in the year —.) In another form of the completion item, the blank in which the pupil is to write the correct response follows a direct question. (When was the Constitution of the United States ratified? —)

Completion items require the student to provide the information which he gives in the response, and so are useful for testing recall of terms, names, dates, numbers, events, or places. Since he can answer completion items rapidly, they can be used to sample much of the content the pupil has studied. The teacher can make satisfactory completion items fairly quickly and easily, provided he follows the suggestions given below, and he can score them rapidly. The chief limitation of the completion item is the narrow purpose for which it can be used, namely, the recall of specific information.

To make effective completion items, the teacher must apply the following rules:

1. Make items that call for a limited and definite response, a specific word, phrase, name, date or number. The item, "A cause of unemployment is —," is not an acceptable completion item because there is no single correct response that can be scored quickly and objectively. The item, "Chicago is located in —," may be answered correctly with "Illinois," "the Midwest," "the United States," or "North America." Again, scoring becomes a problem for the teacher.

2. Use only one, or at most two, blanks in an item. If there are too many blanks, as in the following example, the student has to guess what the question is about: "— states tend to be more internationally minded than — states and — states." The student might not realize that a comparison of *very small*, *medium-sized*, and *very large* states is intended.

3. Place the blank near or at the end of the statement so that the student has to read the item only once to know what the question is. The item, "The —— is the branch of the United States Congress in which each state is represented on the basis of population," requires the student to read the item and then return to the first part to write the answer. For ease in scoring, however, a second blank in which the student is to write his answer may be provided in the left-hand margin.

4. Do not phrase questions in the exact words of the textbook or classroom presentation. If stereotyped language is used, the item will test rote memory rather than recall based on understanding of the required information.

5. Do not provide extraneous clues that hint at the correct response. Provide blanks of the same length in all items, regardless of the length of the word or phrase that is required. Avoid grammatical clues, such as the use of "an" in this item: "A body of land which is not so large as a continent and is surrounded by water is called an ——."

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samples of two-option items, see the test item bulletins in *Selected Readings*.

Multiple-Choice Items. Perhaps the most useful type of objective question for social studies instruction is the multiple-choice item. This type of question consists of a stem, in the form of a question or an incomplete statement, followed by several options or responses. The pupil is required to select the correct response or the one that best answers the question or best completes the statement. The following examples illustrate two forms of multiple-choice items:

Bismarck sponsored social legislation in order to: (1) make Germany solidly socialistic, (2) improve the well-being of the working classes, (3) gain the good will of the Nazis, (4) check the growing bonds of sympathy between workers in Germany and in Soviet Russia.¹

What conditions contributed to the economic depression of the early 1930's? (1) The lack of farm prosperity in the 1920's, (2) The decline of foreign markets after World War I, (3) The lack of purchasing power of low-income groups, (4) The large military budgets of the 1920's, (5) The lack of industrial capacity and natural resources.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------|
| a. 1, 2, 3 | c. 2, 3, 5 |
| b. 1, 2, 4 | d. 1, 4, 5 |
| e. all of the above. ² | |

A third form of this type of item is the reverse multiple-choice question, which is illustrated in the following example. The student is instructed in the stem to choose the incorrect or the least correct response.

Which factor is *least* important in explaining the comparative isolation of China until the 19th century? (1) Deserts and mountain barriers along the frontiers, (2) Buddhism, (3) Racial pride of the Chinese, (4) Distance by water from Western Europe.³

Probably the multiple-choice item is most often used to test the student's recognition of facts, but it can be used to appraise his progress toward a number of significant social studies objectives. It can be employed to test the pupil's understanding of generalizations and vocabulary, or to test such mental processes as application of generalizations, drawing inferences, or identifying assumptions. This kind of question can also be adapted to test study skills, such as interpreting data or locating information, and to appraise the student's ability to make comparisons and recognize cause-effect relationships. It can also be used to test his understanding of the

¹ *Selected Readings*, N.C.S.S. test bulletin on world history, p. 75.

² *Crary American History Test*, Form AM. World Book Company.

³ *Selected Readings*, N.C.S.S. test bulletin on world history, p. 77.

If the social studies teacher decides to use true-false items, he should observe the following precautions in making and scoring them:

1. Use only statements that are absolutely true or false.
2. Avoid textbook language or much-used phrases which pupils may have memorized.
3. Use direct statements that highlight the point to be tested. Avoid introducing extraneous ideas which may confuse the student as to what the question is about. Do not hide the crucial point in an introductory or parenthetical expression. For example, if the point to be tested is the size of the House of Representatives, the item (false) should read, "The House of Representatives numbers 200 members," rather than "The 200 members of the House of Representatives are elected on the basis of population and serve a term of two years."
4. State items positively, avoiding negatives and especially double negatives.
5. Make approximately half the items on a test true and half false, and make sure that the true and false items are distributed throughout the test in a random pattern.
6. On occasion, use a modified type of true-false item. In one type of modified true-false item, the crucial word or phrase in each statement is underlined, and the student is required to correct each false statement by substituting another word or phrase for the one that is underlined. For example, "United States Senators are elected for a term of four years." This form of the true-false item reduces the guessing element and increases the reliability of the test.
7. In scoring a test that consists of conventional true-false items, correct for guessing by subtracting wrongs from rights.

Other Two-Option Items. There are other types of items in which the student chooses between two symbols as he responds to a series of questions and statements. Although some of the limitations of true-false items apply to them, they can be adapted to test specific learnings. For example, students may be given a list of sources of information about a topic, with instructions to mark each with a P if it is a primary source and with an S if it is a secondary work. Or they can be given a generalization followed by a series of factual statements. If a statement supports the generalization, it is marked with a Y; if it does not, it is marked with an N. Two-option items may be used to measure the ability of pupils to outline. Students may be given a faulty outline and may be asked to mark each substatement with an I if it is irrelevant to the topic under which it is placed, with an R if it is relevant. For

or not he is informed about the point that the item was intended to test. Lack of homogeneity in the responses provides clues for guessing. Unequal length of options may provide a clue, since the correct option is likely to be the longest unless the test-maker is conscious of this problem. Examples of items containing such extraneous clues and suggestions for rephrasing the items to eliminate them are found in the world history bulletin noted in Selected Readings.

5. Provide four or five plausible responses in each item, unless there are only three possible alternatives such as "remained the same," "increased," "decreased." The guessing factor is greatly reduced if this rule is followed. If any response is implausible, perhaps because it provides an extraneous clue or is not focused on the central point of the question, the guessing factor is increased.

6. Use simple, direct language in the item, avoiding unnecessary verbiage or difficult vocabulary. An item which is unnecessarily long or technical in vocabulary tests the pupil's reading ability rather than his knowledge or understanding of the item's central point.

Matching Items. Matching questions consist of two columns of items which the pupil relates according to instructions that are provided. Perhaps he is to associate inventors with their inventions, terms with their definitions, or causes with their effects. One column may consist of map symbols, the other of concepts for which the symbols stand, or topics and sources of information about them may be listed in the two columns.

A special form of matching question is useful to test the pupil's understanding of chronology of events. It is illustrated by the following example.⁵

Directions

In the following exercise, the four events in the right-hand column are arranged in the order in which they occurred. Each of the numbers in the right-hand column, therefore, corresponds to a time interval.

Interval 1 is that period preceding the formation of the Dual Alliance (1879); interval 2 is that period between the Dual Alliance (1879) and the Spanish-American War (1898); interval 3 is that period between the Spanish-American War (1898) and the close of World War I (1918); interval 4 is that period between the close of World War I (1918); and Franklin D. Roosevelt first being elected President of the United States (1933); interval 5 is that period after Franklin D. Roosevelt was first elected President of the United States. For each of these statements, indicate the time interval in which the event implied occurred, by writing the appropriate number in the parentheses preceding the statement.

⁵ Selected Readings, N.C.S.S. test bulletin on world history, p. 5.

chronology of events, and his understanding of the conventional time system. ✓

Constructing effective multiple-choice items requires both time and skill. Over a period of a few years, the teacher can solve the time problem by building a file of multiple-choice items for each of the social studies subjects he teaches. He should put into his file the satisfactory items that he has developed and those he obtains by exchanging tests with other social studies teachers. His item collection should include test bulletins published by the National Council for the Social Studies noted in Selected Readings.

The teacher can develop the necessary skills for item construction by applying the following suggestions:

1. Place the entire stem, whether a question or an incomplete statement, before the responses. An item in which the stem is split is difficult to read as a comparison of two versions of an item will demonstrate:

Throughout the Civil War: (1) the capture of Vicksburg, (2) Sherman's march to the sea, (3) the blockade, (4) the capture of Richmond, was probably the most important part of the Union plan of attack.

Throughout the Civil War, probably the most important part of the Union plan of attack was: (1) the capture of Vicksburg, (2) Sherman's march to the sea, (3) the blockade, (4) the capture of Richmond.⁴

2. Focus all the responses on the central point of the item. For example, if the point to be tested has to do with the causes of an event each response should have to do with causes rather than bringing in facts about the event itself or its result.

3. Make clear in the stem what the central problem of the question is. Because this is not done in the following example, the student may make his choice on the basis of "explorers" or "colonial period" or "French":

Which man does not belong in this group? (1) La Salle, (2) Frontenac, (3) Father Marquette, (4) Meriwether Lewis.

4. Avoid extraneous clues that may enable the uninformed student to guess the correct answer. Each response must be grammatically consistent with the stem; the alert student will immediately reject any option which is not. The use in items of phrases that have been emphasized in the textbook or in class discussion will enable the student to make his choice on the basis of rote memory or association of words, rather than understanding and knowledge. The use of identical language in the stem and the correct response will enable the student to guess correctly, whether

⁴ Selected Readings, N.C.S.S. test bulletin on American history, p. 65.

only options 1 and 3 are plausible, and if students know that Malaya is in the Far East their choice is narrowed to option 1.

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| —1. Changed his nation from a semi-Asiatic state to a great European power. | 1. Aztecs |
| —2. A new world people famed for the vast amount of gold and silver in their possession. | 2. League of Nations |
| —3. Was organized to try to prevent war. | 3. Malaysians |
| —4. Resulted in the complete destruction of Carthage. | 4. Peter the Great |
| | 5. Punic Wars |

3. Make each group of items short, with a minimum of three or four and a maximum of eight or ten. If the group is longer, the pupil wastes time in searching for the correct response. Also, the teacher finds it difficult to maintain homogeneity in groups of more than eight or ten items.

4. Arrange responses alphabetically or, if they are dates, chronologically. If this is done, the pupil need not waste time searching for the answer.

5. Avoid the use of stereotyped phrases that the pupil may associate on the basis of memorization rather than of understanding or knowledge.

TEST QUESTIONS WITH PRESENTED DATA. Either essay or objective questions may be based on a reading selection, a film, a recording, a map, a picture, a chart, or a graph which is presented to the student as part of the examination. The combination of presented data and evaluation instruments can be used to appraise the student's growth in a wide variety of skills and understandings, in ability to apply information, and in command of factual information.

The student's ability to read maps, graphs, charts, and statistical tables can be effectively measured by objective items that require him to interpret an appropriate piece of graphic material. For example, pupils may be given a physical map on which various landforms are designated by numbers. Beneath the map is a list of landforms. The pupil is required to relate each landform with an appropriate number on the map. Or he may be given a table, a chart, or a graph and required to answer the accompanying questions by getting the necessary information from the statistical table, chart, or graph. Examples of items for testing the pupil's ability to interpret graphs and tables may be found in the study skills bulletin in Selected Readings.

Knowledge of art and architecture may be evaluated by presenting pictures accompanied by objective test items which call for

- (5) A southern European power avenged a defeat suffered forty years earlier by completing the conquest of an independent nation in eastern Africa
- (4) At an international conference, the United States Secretary of State proposed that the building of first-class battleships be discontinued for ten years
- (3) The completion of a great engineering project reduced, by two-thirds, the distance by boat from New York to San Francisco

-1-
Formation of Dual
Alliance

-2-
Spanish-American
War

-3-
Close of World
War I

-4-
Franklin D. Roosevelt
first elected Presi-
dent of the United
States

The student's knowledge of people, places, events, and dates can be appraised more rapidly and economically by matching items than by most other types of questions. Some aspects of skills can also be tested by matching questions. A wide range of content can be sampled in a relatively short time. If the items are properly constructed, the guessing factor is negligible. The teacher can construct effective matching items quickly and easily, if he follows the rules given below. He can score matching items rapidly and objectively.

The chief limitation of the matching item is that it can only be used to test a body of material consisting of related concepts that can be listed in abbreviated form. Many significant social studies topics cannot be treated adequately through such a listing, and the effort to do so may test the pupil's memorization or recall of phrases rather than his understanding of the material. This limitation does not rule out the use of matching items in social studies instruction, but it does require that such items be used only for selected purposes.

To construct effective matching items the teacher should:

1. Provide more responses than items to be answered, or explain in the instructions that each response may be used more than once or not at all. By doing so, the opportunities for guessing will be reduced.

2. Make each group of items homogeneous; for example, develop separate groups for organizations, statesmen, inventors, and other categories. Unless each response in the answer column is plausible for each entry in the other column, the pupil may guess the correct response simply by eliminating those that are implausible. In the following group of items, for example, there is only one plausible response for items 1, 3, and 4. For item 2,

- 20. To evaluate properly the author's position in paragraph "a," it would be of the greatest importance to make a study of
1. the Republican Party's tariff policy.
 2. the causes of American depressions.
 3. Henry Clay's tariff policy.
 4. the status of the United States as an industrial power.
- 23. The statements of the author with regard to which of these is *least* capable of being proved true or false?
1. the historical policy of the Republican Party toward the tariff.
 2. the effect of changes in the tariff on exports and imports.
 3. the standard of living of American workingmen.
 4. the effect of the tariff on stabilizing employment.

The Committee of the American Council of Education has also developed the following which may be used with any appropriate reading selection:⁷

List any stereotypes or clichés which you can find in the selection.

List any examples you can find of emotional or biased statements in the selection.

Does the selection present unverifiable data as though they were facts? If so, list them.

What is the main point of this selection?

Are the facts which are presented in the selection as supporting the author's position pertinent to his argument? Explain.

What additional information is needed before passing judgment upon the author's position? Or do you think enough data have been provided?

Is the presentation consistent? If not, list examples of inconsistencies.

Judging the selection as a whole, what are some of the ideas and beliefs which the author takes for granted?

What thoughts and feelings on the general subject did you have which may have influenced your reaction to the selection?

What are your conclusions with respect to the main point of the selection?

The Interpretation of Data Test, published by the Educational Testing Service, consists of a series of problems. Each includes a paragraph, table, or chart followed by a series of interpretive statements of comparisons, trends, cause-and-effect relationships, purpose, analogies, value judgments, and sampling. Pupils are asked to mark these statements as "true," "probably true," "false," "probably false," or with a symbol to indicate that the data are insufficient to judge the truth or falsity of the statement.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 12.

pupils to associate selected paintings, statues, or buildings with a particular period or culture. Or the test questions may ask the student to match various art products of a given period or culture. In a teacher-made test containing such items the pictures may be presented by projecting them, in which case the members of the class must complete the related test questions on their examination papers while the picture is before them. Or the teacher may mount each picture or group of pictures on a separate sheet which is identified by the number or numbers of the test items for which it is the basis and pass these sheets around the class; if this procedure is followed, each student must complete the "art and architecture" section of the test as the pictures reach him. Examples of such items may be found in the world history bulletin noted in Selected Readings.

Test questions based on reading selections, films, recordings, or other presented data may be used to evaluate various aspects of critical thinking, and are sometimes called "problem situation tests." They take various forms, several of which are illustrated by the following examples.

To test the student's ability to evaluate the testimony of witnesses, he may be given two or more accounts of the same event and instructed to write on the following questions:

1. What facts do you accept after reading these accounts?
2. Why do you consider them to be established?
3. What facts do you think are probably so, but are not clearly established?
4. Why do you so classify them?
5. What statements do you consider too doubtful to accept even with reservations? Explain your reasons.

Several aspects of critical thinking skills are appraised by a test developed by the Inter-College Committee on the Evaluation of Social Studies Objectives of the American Council on Education. One of their questions contains a selection on the protective tariff, with the paragraphs lettered *a*, *b*, *c*, and so on. Students are asked to respond to a series of items based upon the selection. Three sample items will indicate the nature of this problem situation test.⁶

- 18. The general argument presented by the author assumes that
 1. agriculture is the fundamental American economic activity.
 2. the government should follow a strictly laissez-faire policy on foreign trade.
 3. general prosperity can be induced by assistance to certain industries.
 4. the national income is inequitably distributed.

⁶ Paul L. Dressel and Lewis B. Mayhew, *Critical Thinking in Social Science* (Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1954), pp. 30-32.

learning the prevailing range of attitudes for the class as a whole, rather than attitudes of individuals, he can increase the validity of the results by asking pupils to respond to the scale anonymously.

Most of the published scales for measuring attitudes toward social problems are out of date. Remmers, however, has developed a series of generalized scales for measuring attitudes toward various institutions or areas of social action (see *Selected Readings*). In addition, the teacher may use current public-opinion polls, so that he may compare his students' attitudes about significant present-day issues with those of adults.

INVENTORIES. Inventories usually consist of questionnaires or checklists to be completed by students once or twice a year. They can provide useful information about the student's academic interests, reading interests, radio, television, and movie interests, personal adjustment, and vocational interests. The results have meaning only if the teacher has established a sufficiently positive rapport with pupils so that they are willing to answer questions honestly.

General inventories of academic and vocational interests and of social adjustment are administered by the guidance department in most schools. The social studies teacher should acquaint himself with his students' responses to any such inventories. In addition, he will find it profitable to construct and administer simple checklists dealing with student interests and habits in newspaper and magazine reading and in television viewing. To get information about television viewing, for example, the teacher can duplicate a list of selected programs and ask pupils to check each program according to this key:

- 1__like very much, make every effort to see
- 2__like somewhat, view it if convenient
- 3__dislike it.
- 4__have never seen it.

A checklist on newspaper reading may consist of a list of the sections of the newspaper (general news, financial news, charts, comics, editorials). The student is asked to check those sections he reads regularly, and state the approximate amount of time he spends with each section each day or each week.

OBSERVATION RECORDS. A useful method of obtaining information about some aspects of student progress is to observe student behavior or student products. Observation can be more objective and comprehensive if it is guided by checklists or rating scales. Teachers can also use other devices, such as anecdotal records and diaries or logs, for recording their observations in a systematic

Problem situation tests and others which combine essay or objective items with presented data are valuable because they can be used to appraise aspects of understandings and skills that are difficult to measure through more conventional instruments. They are not used so widely as they deserve, probably because they are more difficult to construct than are the more conventional test items. It is also more difficult to score them and to interpret the results.

ATTITUDE SCALES. There are several broad types of pupil attitudes which the social studies teacher may wish to appraise: beliefs about social issues; attitudes toward other people, particularly those of ethnic, socioeconomic, or political groups other than his own; appreciations; and interests. Inventories which are used to collect evidence about appreciations and interests are discussed in the next section. Attitude scales are used in attempts to measure the first two types.

Efforts at attitude measurement take many forms, from simple but less reliable and valid devices to highly complex scales. For example, the student may be asked a single, broad question to which he is requested to respond with "yes," "no," or "undecided." Many people will hesitate in responding to such a question, however, and may decide one way in the morning, another in the afternoon. A more refined measure of a person's attitude toward a particular topic, such as labor organizations, an important piece of legislation, or a minority group, may be obtained by getting his answers to a series of items concerning the topic. The greater number of items increases the likelihood that the student will respond to a larger proportion of them on the basis of real attitude rather than chance. Reliability can be increased also by giving the student more choices in responding to each item. For example, he may be asked to indicate his reaction as "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," or "strongly disagree." Or he may be given a paragraph or two presenting a social problem in which he might be involved and asked to choose among five possible courses of action.

In using attitude scales, the teacher must recognize that the pupil's stated opinions may not represent his true attitudes. His responses to items on an attitude scale may be affected by loaded words or phrases in the statements, by how he believes the teacher wants him to react, or by how he thinks he should or would like to react even though he probably would not do so if faced with an actual situation. The validity of a scale can be increased by using neutral language in the statements. If the teacher is satisfied with

loose-leaf note book—a behavior journal or log, so to speak—in which duplicated forms are placed. Each sheet includes headings such as those in Table 6, and is used to make a cumulative record of one student's behavior.

TABLE 6
A SAMPLE OF ANECDOTAL RECORDING

Name:	John Jones	Class:	12th Soc. St.	Teacher:	Brown
Date	Description of Incident			Interpretation	
10/4	John referred to an article in the <i>New York Times</i> today during a discussion of current events.			Is reading beyond the class assignments for current events	
10/11	John commented on differences in reporting in <i>Time</i> magazine and in <i>The Reporter</i> on an incident discussed in class.			Appears to be evaluating sources.	
10/14	During a discussion of text material, John referred to a recent example he had read in <i>Time</i> magazine.			Apparently relates his current events reading to his class study.	
10/24	John brought in a clipping from the <i>New York Times</i> on a topic related to the unit under discussion.			Seems to be reading newspapers and magazines outside of class.	
10/25	When <i>Harpers</i> magazine was mentioned, John asked about its editorial policy. Had not heard of it before.			Is developing the habit of checking on bias of reading materials.	

In making the entries given in this example, the teacher followed an important rule of anecdotal recording: he described the pupil's behavior objectively, and stated his interpretation of it separately. Comments such as "Jo was most uncooperative today during committee sessions" or "Ned was lazy and troublesome today during a reading period" are teacher judgments, not a record of pupil behavior, and have little value as observation records.

The example given above also illustrates the teacher's concentration on a selected aspect of behavior about which he cannot obtain evidence from other sources. A teacher does not have time to keep anecdotal records for all students on all aspects of behavior. He must select those behaviors about which anecdotal recording will be most rewarding, or he may use his recording time to collect specific information about a few pupils who seem to be having problems. In the latter case, the teacher will record each incident which seems significant for understanding a pupil's problems.

Student-Kept Records. Time charts, reading records, progress charts, and minutes or logs kept by students may provide useful

manner. The value of observation records, of course, depends on the objectivity of the observer and his skill in evaluating what he observes.

Checklists and Rating Scales. Checklists may be used for observing both pupil behavior and things produced by students. They differ from rating scales in that the teacher merely records the presence or absence of the thing listed or rates it according to a simple classification such as "good," "average," or "poor."

Checklists on products such as oral reports, written reports, projects, bulletin board displays, or notebooks may be developed in cooperation with students. Criteria for judging a bulletin board display, for example, may be phrased as questions to be answered with "yes," "no," or "to some extent," as in the following illustration:

To Some
Yes No Extent

Does the display develop a single idea?

Does it use effective captions?

Do color and/or lighting help focus attention?

Is the display simple and uncluttered?

Does the layout draw the eyes to the center of interest?

Are the data used in the display accurate?

Are the ideas presented tenable?

If the display deals with a controversial issue, does it present varying viewpoints?

Similar checklists can be developed for evaluating discussion behavior, committee work, study habits, and pupil behavior in other situations.

In many cases, it is misleading to describe pupil behavior or products on a two- or three-point scale. A rating scale which describes degrees on a continuum enables the observer to refine his recorded judgments. One line of a rating scale on discussion behavior, for example, may appear as follows:

Almost never participates in class discussions	Seldom participates	Participates as much as the average pupil	Participates frequently	Participates more than most pupils in class

Anecdotal Records. Many useful observations of pupil behavior cannot be recorded on checklists or rating scales, but can be stated in a brief description. Such descriptions are known as anecdotal records. Individual anecdotes may be written on small cards or especially prepared blanks, or the teacher may prefer to use a

during a unit of work, and a unit test will be administered near the end of each unit. A description of the construction and administration of a unit test will illustrate the steps involved in developing and using a classroom test.

In constructing a unit test, the teacher is guided by three questions: What aspects of student growth is this test to appraise? What types of items will best measure each of the anticipated learnings? How much time will students have to take the test?

The teacher's first step is to review the goals of the unit—understandings, skills, and attitudes—and the outline of content that pupils have studied, working out a possible percentage of the total test to be given to each major point. Next he decides what type of item will best appraise each of the various points. Turning to his file of items, he selects those that could be used. For each item he has selected, he records a check-mark in the margin of the unit plan opposite the point to which the item is related. Now he can see what goals and points of content are not covered by available items, and construct those that are needed to make a balanced test.

In the completed test he will probably use a combination of essay and objective questions in order to test both depth of knowledge about a major concept and a sampling of other important ideas developed in the unit. He will assign appropriate weight to each part of the test.

The next step is to assemble the test for reproduction. In assembling the test the teacher should observe the following:

1. Place items of the same type (as multiple-choice) in a group, and provide clear directions and information about weighting for each group.
2. Arrange items from easy to difficult within each group, and within the test as a whole, so that slower students will encounter first the questions that they are likely to be able to answer.
3. Check the pattern of correct responses in multiple-choice and true-false sections, to be sure they do not appear in a fixed sequence.
4. Be sure that no item runs from one page to the next, since a continued question is more difficult for the pupil to read.
5. Provide for rapid scoring of objective items, either by use of a separate answer sheet or by placing blanks for student responses along the left-hand margin of the test sheets.
6. Proofread the finished test to correct typographical errors.

When the test is administered, the teacher will introduce it by giving whatever explanations are needed. He should answer students' questions before the class begins work, warning them that he cannot discuss the test after they have started. During the

information for appraising their development. The student may keep a week's time chart of television viewing, or of home study. He may keep a record of social studies reading beyond the minimum assignments. He may keep a progress chart on which he records the results of diagnostic and study exercises in selected areas, such as reading skills, listening skills, or map-interpretation skills. He may keep a log of what he did in preparing a report. By analyzing such student-kept records, the teacher and the student can note progress and identify weaknesses that need to be corrected.

COMMERCIAL EVALUATION INSTRUMENTS. The most complete guide to published evaluation instruments is Buros' *Mental Measurements Yearbook* (see Selected Readings). The social studies teacher should consult it to become aware of the range of standardized achievement tests, inventories, and other instruments that are available, and to read the reviews of instruments he may wish to consider for use. The teacher may wish to obtain catalogues from the major testing agencies in order to purchase specimen sets of tests for examination. Most teacher-education institutions maintain a library collection of published evaluation instruments, which may be consulted by teachers. It is not difficult to discover what published instruments are available, nor to obtain critical evaluations of them.

Most published evaluation instruments have been prepared by specialists, and conform to the rules for item construction that have been stated above. Administering a standardized test enables the teacher to compare his pupils' performances with those of other students around the country. This has some advantage, if the learning goals evaluated by the test are those that the teacher has worked toward. However, an able student may achieve a high rank on a standardized test, yet be working far below capacity. A slow learner, on the other hand, may be putting forth the utmost effort and still perform below the grade-level norm. If the entire class ranks low on the standardized test, it may be because the specific content they have studied is not that on which the test was based. It is clear that results obtained from administering a standardized test must be interpreted with care.

CONSTRUCTING AND ADMINISTERING A UNIT TEST

Even though the teacher uses a standardized test at the end of the year, he must make tests for classroom use during the year. Some of these will be diagnostic exercises such as those described on page 179, some will test pupil progress at appropriate points

CHART 2

SAMPLE FROM SUMMARY SHEET FOR SKILL TEST

Skill	John A	Jo B	Jill C	Jean D	Bob E	Ann F	Mary G	Bill H	Ruth I	Margaret J	Fred K	Betty L	Debbie M			
Evaluating sources (total score)																
1. Determining assumptions																
2. Detecting inconsistencies																
3. Recognizing bias																
4. Determining competency of authors																
5. Recognizing incompleteness																

them to guide pupils, report to parents, and improve the social studies program. What steps can be taken with the class as a whole, to help pupils overcome difficulties or make new gains? What steps should be taken with individual students? The teacher may decide to group pupils who need to work on the same skills, he may hold individual conferences with students to go over their work, and he may use a general classroom activity for remedial work in areas where most pupils have been weak.

Preparing reports to parents is a difficult task for any teacher. Because report forms vary so widely from one school to another, only general advice can be given. If one over-all grade is reported to parents, the teacher must decide what weight to give to skills and to knowledge. He must decide how to weight each major test and what weight to place upon other tests, projects, and participation in classroom discussion. Some teachers find that most tests they use are fairly short, with few breaks in the curve for student scores; consequently, only one or two points may differentiate A's from B's and so on. In this case a teacher may decide what weight to give all tests combined, add numerical scores on these tests, prepare a curve for these total scores, and then assign a grade for tests. They may decide to weight tests as one-third of the unit or six-weeks mark, classroom participation as one-third, and projects as one-third. Having determined grades for each, they can use a numerical system such as four points for an A, three for a B, two for a C, and one for a D, and then average grades for each student. Other teachers place greatest emphasis upon

test-taking period, however, the teacher should observe the students carefully, in order to give whatever help he decides is needed and appropriate. He should announce the time at intervals, to help students apportion their time, according to the weight of the parts of the test. When the allotted writing time has expired, the teacher should collect papers promptly.

RECORDING AND USING EVALUATION RESULTS

In most schools teachers are required to record test scores in a class record book, along with other grades for written assignments, quizzes, special projects, and class participation. This is a summary record which becomes the basis for periodic reports to parents, and must be kept accurately. For effective use of evaluation results, however, the teacher needs to develop a system of fuller records to use from day to day.

Some teachers keep a folder for each student's records. In the folder they place rating scales and checklists that have been used to appraise papers, oral reports, or other aspects of student performance, samples of the student's work, and interest inventories that have been administered. In addition, the folder may contain summary sheets showing the student's progress in the various skill areas. The student himself can assist in recording scores he has earned on diagnostic tests and day-to-day exercises. He can profit from a periodic review of his progress as it is demonstrated by the records in his folder.

Many teachers keep a folder for each class as well as one for each pupil. The class folders are used to record summaries of data which cannot be included in record books. For example, a sheet may be prepared for each major test to show the curve of distribution, the measure of central tendency, and the measure of distribution. In addition, the teacher may prepare summary sheets to show subscores on a skills test, such as is shown in Chart 2.

Having recorded and summarized evaluation data, the teacher must interpret it before he can make use of it. When a teacher constructs his own evaluation instrument, what do the findings mean? If a standardized test has been used, the teacher's manual will help him compare the class results with national norms. He will also wish to ask himself what strengths and weaknesses the class exhibits as a whole, as well as what strengths and weaknesses are exhibited by each student. The teacher must have some acquaintance with elementary statistics to interpret results.

With evaluation results interpreted, the teacher is ready to use

Evaluation of pupil progress is essential to effective teaching in the social studies. Evaluation is used not merely to ascertain the level of pupil performance but to facilitate growth. An effective program of evaluation in the social studies depends upon wise selection and application of appropriate evaluation instruments, based on a careful statement of objectives. Each instrument that is used should be considered in the light of its validity, reliability, discrimination, ease of administration and interpretation, and effect upon pupil study habits. No teacher can expect a single type of instrument to meet all of his needs. He must know the many types that can be used and be skilled in building them. Having collected and interpreted evidence concerning student growth, the teacher uses it to guide pupils, report to parents, and improve his teaching techniques and the social studies curriculum.

SELECTED READINGS

TEST ITEM BULLETINS, NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

- No. 6. ANDERSON, H. R.; LINDQUIST, E. F.; and STULL, HARRIET. *Selected Test Items in American History*, rev. ed. 1957.
- No. 9. ANDERSON, H. R.; LINDQUIST, E. F.; and HEENAN, DAVID K. *Selected Test Items in World History*, rev. ed. 1960.
- No. 11. ANDERSON, H. R., and LINDQUIST, E. F. *Selected Test Items in Economics*. 1939.
- No. 13. ANDERSON, H. R.; LINDQUIST, E. F.; and BERG, H. D. *Selected Test Items in American Government*, rev. ed. 1950.
- No. 15. MORSE, HORACE T., and McCUNE, GEORGE H. *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills and Critical Thinking*, rev. ed. 1957.

ARTICLE

- EBEL, ROBERT L., "The Problem of Evaluation in the Social Studies," in *Social Education*, 24 (January, 1960), 6-10.

Discusses problems of evaluation in social studies, urges clearer and more realistic definition of goals as a basis for improving evaluation.

BOOKS

- ADAMS, GEORGIA SACHS, and TORGERSON, THEODORE L. *Measurement and Evaluation for the Secondary School Teacher*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc. 1956.

An excellent treatment of various aspects of evaluation. Includes clear explanations of elementary statistics and educational diagnosis. Useful chapters on types of test items, evaluation in the social studies, and validity and reliability of tests. The appendix contains a list of standardized tests for social studies.

- BLOOM, BENJAMIN S. (ed.). *The Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, The Classification of Educational Goals Handbook, I: Cognitive Domain*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1956.

Classifies objectives related to knowledge, comprehension, and ability to apply, synthesize, and evaluate information. Provides sample test items to illustrate techniques for evaluating progress toward these goals.

tests and projects, letting classroom participation determine the final mark in case the other grades are on the borderline. For example, a student with a strong B+ average on tests and projects might be given an A if he were outstanding in classroom discussion, a B if he participated little or poorly.

The disadvantages of the traditional report card which gives parents a single, composite grade for each course have been described at length in educational literature. Many schools have adopted new types of report forms with checklists to indicate progress toward the various course objectives. One school, for example, has developed a form with the top half common for all departments in the school. On this half of the report, students are marked on progress toward common objectives of the school, such as individual responsibility and respect for others. The bottom half of the form varies from department to department. The social studies department evaluates the extent to which the student:

1. Is aware of what goes on in the world today
2. Knows the basic understandings in the content field
3. Distinguishes opinions from facts
4. Recognizes inconsistencies and illogical arguments
5. Investigates various views before coming to decisions
6. Reads widely and reads increasingly mature materials
7. Uses globes, tables, graphs, charts, and maps effectively.

This type of report form is far more meaningful to students and parents than is a report card with a single grade for each subject. If a teacher finds himself in a school that uses a conventional report card, he can still invite parents to examine records in their child's folder. Or he may prepare a summary form for students and urge them to take these forms home to their parents.

Regardless of the type of report form used, the teacher is able to do a better job of reporting to parents if he has evaluated progress toward all of his goals, and if he has kept careful records of student work of all types.

Having interpreted the evidence gathered by a variety of evaluation devices, the teacher or the social studies staff as a whole should consider implications for curriculum and for classroom procedures. If an interest index shows that most pupils dislike more social studies activities than they like, teachers need to reconsider their offerings and the activities in each class. If tests show that students are weak in certain skills, the teacher must devise ways of teaching them. Evaluation thus guides a teacher in his everyday classroom activities, in his choice of materials, and in his efforts to improve the social studies curriculum.

Part IV

LEARNING MATERIALS

- BUTTS, OSCAR K. (ed.). *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*. Highland Park, N.J.: Gryphon Press, 1959.
Lists standardized tests on social studies, together with reviews of each one.
- BUTTS, WILLIAM H. *The Guidance of Learning Activities*, rev. ed. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1952.
Chapter 21 deals with the principles and problems of assigning grades and gives examples of different types of report cards.
- REIDERS, H. H., and GAGE, N. L. *Educational Measurement and Evaluation*, rev. ed. New York: Harper & Bros., 1955.
Valuable suggestions on constructing achievement tests, and attitude and interest scales. Explains the statistical procedures needed for interpreting test results.
- SMITH, EUGENE R.; TYLER, RALPH W., and others. *Appraising And Recording Student Progress*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942.
This volume in the report of the Progressive Education Association's Eight Year Study describes the development of new types of evaluation instruments. Social studies teachers will find much help from the sample items on interpretation of data, logical reasoning, and application of facts and generalizations to social problems. The authors also describe techniques for discovering reading interests and interest in school subjects.

TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks are tools for learning. Like any other educational tool, they may be well used or misused. Like any other product of intellectual activity, they vary in quality.

Textbooks have had a far-reaching influence upon social studies teaching and the social studies curriculum. A majority of teachers rely heavily upon a textbook as the basis for classroom instruction. For these teachers, the text is the chief and sometimes the only tool, providing content, organization, and focus for class activity; in the least effective situations, pupils come in contact with little information and few ideas not contained in the textbook for the course.

In view of the heavy reliance which many teachers place upon textbooks, it is fortunate that these materials have been improved in recent years. More and more of them are prepared by teams of authors that include a specialist in the subject matter concerned and one who has studied psychological principles of teaching and learning.

Greater attention is paid in some modern social studies textbooks to the selection and development of important concepts, as distinguished from the endless accumulation of unrelated details. Increasingly, authors suggest activities to help students reorganize information derived from the text and acquire appropriate skills; and also consider carefully the probable interests of intended readers, the readability of the text, and the functional use of graphics as a deliberate aid to reading.

Today's better textbooks are a far cry from their not-too-distant predecessors. In part, the changes have come naturally as research in education has thrown more light upon adolescent needs and

interests, the psychology of learning, and the factors making for reading difficulty. Changes have also been stimulated by a series of studies dealing with the treatment of particular topics in social studies textbooks. These studies have emphasized accuracy, recency, and objectivity of materials. A number of these studies are cited at the end of the chapter.

A carefully prepared textbook offers the teacher several advantages. Authors and editors have usually devoted considerable thought to the organization for the subject—much more than the typical busy teacher can give to it. The text offers a basic core of content and illustrations upon which discussions may be based. The use of a common text facilitates the use of group exercises involving reading and study skills.

On the other hand, any textbook has inevitable limitations. Because of space requirements, the content tends to be condensed, abstract, and general, and the fact load is heavy. Textbooks also tend to be uneven in treatment of topics. In order to present some topics more fully, others must be slighted. There is little opportunity for presentation of differing viewpoints, so the controversial is usually avoided. Because of the time required for publication, textbooks cannot include current materials. And not all social studies textbooks that have recent copyright dates have been prepared with the care described above.

METHODS OF USING TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks are used in many ways in social studies classes. Routine memorization of a single text, paragraph by paragraph, was once common. Fortunately, such rote memory drill is no longer employed, although recitation paraphrasing the text is still all too frequent. At the other end of the scale, the textbook is used as one of the many sources of study. In between are a variety of levels of teaching with textbooks.

Question-answer recitation based on day-by-day assignments in the textbook is the regular pattern in many classrooms. The deficiencies of this practice, together with suggestions for changing a recitation into a discussion, have been presented in Chapter 8. The teacher who clings to day-by-day procedures can improve student learning by substituting discussion for question-answer recitation.

Many teachers employ a unit organization for instruction. The textbook has an important place in unit teaching whether it is the main source of information or one of several.

SINGLE TEXT. Some people mistakenly believe that a teacher cannot organize learning experiences into units if he uses a single text. A teacher who is overloaded with several preparations, who is just beginning and has no reservoir of materials and resource units, or who is working in a school with an inadequate library may have to rely chiefly upon a single textbook. In this case, following the overview and planning of the unit, the students will gather the specific information about the unit topic from the single text. They may have already skimmed the appropriate sections of their textbook; however, they will have to reread the material more slowly to identify main ideas, find supporting detail, and note relationships.

While the text may be the only reading source used by most of the students, at least a few of them will search for additional information about aspects of the unit topic that are not treated fully in the textbook. Those who do not do additional reading in non-text materials may engage in other types of activities based on the textbook reading. These include making time lines or other graphics, preparing summaries for a review session, presenting a brief skit to the class, or drafting questions for the unit test.

The limitations of a textbook are accentuated when it is used as the only source of information. The important skills of collecting and organizing information from several sources will be neglected. Reliance upon a single text may develop a blind acceptance of the printed word. Students have no opportunity to see that authors differ in interpretations and that even authors of high reputation may sometimes err on facts. In addition, there may be serious gaps in information on some topics. Finally, differences in reading ability and interests provide strong arguments against exclusive use of one textbook by all members of a given class.

MULTIPLE TEXTS. Because of the limitations arising from use of a single textbook, some teachers make assignments in other books so that students can read several textbook accounts of the topic. If the parallel textbooks present differing facts or interpretations, such an assignment will help students develop a richer background and provide experience in evaluating sources of information. Most books for a particular course are so similar, however, that assigned readings in parallel texts do little to stimulate interest or critical thinking. The discriminating teacher will study available texts to identify topics that are treated differently, and make parallel reading assignments on these points for part of the unit. He has students work with one text during the rest of the unit, and use the available time to supplement the basic textbook with specialized

accounts and other materials that are likely to be fuller and so more useful.

Parallel textbooks are sometimes used to provide for differences in reading abilities among pupils. Instead of assigning the same reading to all pupils, the teacher may give alternate assignments in several textbooks of varying degrees of difficulty. All students can read about the same topic, each in a book suited to his reading level. When this is done, the teacher should provide questions about the topic to guide student reading. In some assignments students may have to use several texts to find answers to all questions. When they have completed the reading, the teacher may have the members of the class pool their information from accounts in the various textbooks.

TEXTS AND OTHER MATERIALS. In some classrooms several different textbooks are considered as basic, any one of which a student can use in studying a unit. For example, a class studying the period of the New Deal may decide to investigate the physical and psychological effects of economic depression and unemployment upon people. In this case, each member reads an account of the period in the basic textbook of his own selection. Then, as the normal study procedure, each student will go on to other sources of information. Some will read unemployment case histories. Others will study accounts of the depression period written by economists, sociologists, and psychologists. A few students may use the local library to find pertinent articles in back issues of newspapers and magazines. Some members of the class may read a novel, a play, or a short story dealing with the unemployed of the depression period. Still others examine pictorial accounts of the depression years.

Students, whether good or poor readers, use non-reading sources of information, too. They may interview such persons as social workers, bankers, businessmen, labor leaders, or their own parents and relatives about life during the depression. They view films, filmstrips, and slides. These various sources of information are drawn upon as the class discusses the problems of the period. The non-text materials enrich and provide meaning for the text accounts, while the textbooks furnish a setting for the other sources of information.

The teacher who wishes to move away from daily assignments in a single text can do so gradually. He can start by using the text as the basic reading within a unit framework. He can supplement the text with audio-visual materials, community resources, and selected non-text accounts which some pupils will use in re-

porting on specific topics. Gradually, the teacher can obtain copies of textbooks of various levels of difficulty. He can build a larger library of other materials for differing reading abilities and interests. Eventually, he may work out a course organization that is completely different from that found in any one text; or he may even abandon the textbook except as one source of information or for specific exercises. The development and use of resource units will enable the teacher to make a smooth transition from daily textbook recitations to the use of a wide variety of materials.

TEACHING STUDENTS TO USE TEXTBOOKS

Although textbooks are studied by pupils throughout their school careers, many students have never had direct instruction about the various features of these materials and how to use them. Such instruction can bring immediate improvement in learning.

Students will profit from a systematic introduction each year to the textbooks that will constitute the basic reading in a social studies course. After distributing the texts to students, the teacher may acquaint them with various features of the books through a discussion of questions such as the following:

1. Who wrote the textbook you have in your hands? What information about the authors can you find on the title page or elsewhere in the book? Where does each of them live? What position does each hold? Why are such facts about the authors important? Where might you find additional information about them?
2. When was the book written? Has it been revised? Where do you find this information? Why is it important?
3. Does the book contain a preface? Of what help can it be?
4. What do you learn about the book from the table of contents?
5. Does the textbook contain a list of maps or illustrations? If so, where is it located? How can you use it as you study the book?
6. Are there suggestions for additional readings? How can you use them? (In discussing this question, the teacher may wish to indicate the use to be made of readings in the course.)
7. Does the textbook include questions to be considered as you read the chapters? What kinds of study aids are there at the ends of chapters and units? (The teacher may indicate the use to be made of activities and exercises suggested in the textbook.)
8. Does the book contain an appendix? What is in it? How will you use it?

In the course of the discussion, students may be led to recognize that they should notice such features as these in other books that they use, as well as in textbooks.

An annual review of specific skills essential to the proper use of textbooks, followed by whatever remedial teaching is indicated, will increase pupils' efficiency in study. The review should include a discussion of such features as the table of contents, the index, appendices, cross references, headings, and summaries. During the first weeks of the term the teacher may schedule a series of brief exercises, each devoted to reviewing one or more of these features. For example, the value of the index may be reviewed or taught by having students discuss such questions as these, referring to their textbooks to find examples of each point:

1. For what purposes would you use the index instead of the table of contents?
2. If you want to locate information about the Speaker of the House of Representatives (or other topic related to the work of the class), would you use the index or the table of contents? Why?
3. On what page of your textbook is the Speaker first mentioned? On what pages do you find the most extensive treatment of this subject? How do you know? What other devices are used in indexes to indicate the most extensive references to a subject?
4. Look through the index until you find the words "see" or "see also." What is their purpose?
5. Under what index entries would you look to find information about each of these topics: how to join a political party; how a congressional committee operates; how the income tax differs from other types of taxation (or other topics appropriate to the work of the moment)?
6. Does the index provide help in pronunciation? How?
7. Does the index provide page references for pictures and maps? How?

Similar exercises may be developed to review the use of other features of the textbook, or exercises covering the same points may be made in the form of objective test items and administered as diagnostic tests. Such exercises may be repeated from time to time during the year as they are needed to reinforce skills in using the textbook. They should always be related to the topic that the class is studying at the moment.

EVALUATING TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks vary in quality, and this is especially true of the texts available for each social studies course. Consequently, the selection of textbooks should not be made haphazardly.

Formerly, textbooks for a particular school system were chosen

by school administrators or by members of state departments of education, not by teachers. In most situations today social studies teachers have a voice, directly or indirectly, in selecting the textbooks they will use. In smaller school systems the teacher may choose directly. In larger communities and in some states, social studies textbooks are usually selected by a committee with teacher representation.

Whether a teacher is selecting a text for his own class, working as a member of a textbook-selection committee, or advising a school-district or state official, his task is much the same. He must have criteria for judging the books and a scoring device to facilitate the application of the criteria. He must have copies of all textbooks under consideration, and evaluate each book in terms of the criteria. When he has eliminated all but two or three books, he should re-examine these and perhaps try parts of them in class with students of differing levels of reading ability.

It is not difficult for a textbook committee to learn what books are available and to obtain copies for examination. Publishers advertise widely, send representatives to the schools, and provide examination copies of textbooks upon request. Educational journals carry reviews of new books. In addition, each December issue of *Social Education* includes an annotated list of all social studies textbooks published or revised during the past year. By consulting these articles over a period of four or five years, the teacher can build a list of almost all of the textbooks currently available for his courses.

Probably no list of criteria for evaluating textbooks would apply in every situation, but some basic ones can be identified. These include suitability for the course objectives and organization, accuracy, recency, appropriate reading level, treatment of material, style of writing, suitability of graphic materials, and effectiveness of teaching aids.

SUITABILITY FOR COURSE. If a text is to serve as the basic reading for a class, its organization and general nature must contribute to the objectives and organization of material planned for the course. The approximate allotment of space to different topics and/or historical periods can be ascertained through study of the table of contents and a rapid check of index references.

Space allotments, however, throw little light upon authors' generalizations or upon how effectively they develop these generalizations. They may present a great deal of unrelated information with important interpretations completely lacking. Therefore, a

teacher must review the generalizations to be developed in the course to see if the students are likely to grasp them from study of the book.

ACCURACY OF MATERIAL. An inaccurate textbook is, of course, not only useless but harmful. Answers to the following questions will help a teacher ascertain the accuracy of the material:

1. Who is the author? Is he competent in the field in which he is writing?
2. Are essential facts included so that students will obtain a well-rounded impression? Are the facts accurate?
3. Are difficult terms explained and ambiguous wording avoided so that misunderstandings will not arise as to interpretations?
4. Do interpretations of data agree with current views of scholars, where there exists any consensus?
5. Are major views of controversial questions presented fairly? Does the author use colored words which might give rise to prejudice?

RECENCY OF MATERIAL. Up-to-date information is closely related to the development of accurate impressions based upon current interpretations and data. Recent happenings hold greater appeal for students than earlier events which may illustrate the same concepts or generalizations. A recent copyright date is no guarantee that the material in a book is up to date, of course, but it does indicate that the authors have had an opportunity to present recent data and interpretations. Answers to questions such as the following will help the teacher determine the recency of material in a textbook:

1. When was the book first published?
2. What is the most recent copyright date?
3. Are the data and content in the most recent edition up to date?

APPROPRIATENESS OF READING LEVEL. The level of reading difficulty which a textbook presents to a given student is determined by several factors. Some factors can be measured quantitatively and are the basis for numerous formulas for predicting the reading level of materials. Other more important factors cannot be measured so objectively but can be appraised with some success by those familiar with research in the areas of reading and the psychology of learning.

Interest-Appeal. One factor affecting the level of reading difficulty is the interest-appeal the material is likely to have for the reader. If the student is interested, if he sees good reason for studying the material, particularly if he sees its relationship to himself, he will make a greater endeavor to understand his textbook

readings. He will make more effort to relate the information to what he already knows, to use it in building generalizations, and to apply the information in trying to find answers to related problems.

To appraise the probable appeal of a textbook for his students, the teacher can examine the book with these questions in mind:

1. Is the content suitable to the maturity level of the readers?
2. Does the author, through discussion or suggested activities, show the importance of major topics and how they affect the students personally?
3. Does the author suggest any way in which young people can participate in or influence civic actions related to the topics discussed?
4. Does the author use interesting and concrete examples? Does he use examples in explaining generalizations? Does he emphasize human interest materials? Does he employ an anecdotal or narrative approach where possible, even when explaining ideas? Does he make comparisons with matters within the probable range of the readers' experiences?
5. Does the author employ an adult tone, regardless of the simplicity of the materials?
6. Does the author's style of writing make the account seem to move fairly rapidly (relying heavily on the active rather than the passive voice, using many verbs in proportion to adjectives)?
7. Does the author use vivid, descriptive words and phrases?

Organization and Fullness of Material. The teacher must also evaluate the clarity of the organization of the material, and the fullness with which topics are treated. A clear, logical organization enhances readability. Major ideas should stand out sharply, with minor ideas properly subordinated, and major ideas should follow one another in some logical order.

The degree to which concepts, generalizations, and abstract ideas are developed through specific supporting information is important. Authors can err in two apparently contradictory ways. On the one hand, some pack textbooks full with names, dates, and events, without enough elaboration to make the people, places, and episodes seem real. Such texts contain too heavy a fact load. Students may memorize the facts and regurgitate them for the teacher, but they probably will see no significance in the facts and will not be likely to remember them. On the other hand, some authors oversimplify by leaving out most of the specific facts and retaining many highly generalized statements. A superficial examination of one text might reveal a simple style and a light fact load. Names, dates, places, and events may be limited; but the author's state-

ments may not contribute to student understanding. For example, if an author states that tariffs reduce international trade but does not explain why, students may repeat this statement without understanding it. To be comprehensible, an author must support abstract ideas with examples and specifics. Slow learners in particular need concrete examples in the presentation of abstract ideas.

The amount of supporting detail which an author can provide is affected by the number of topics he treats within the limits of the space available. The most effective textbook, therefore, is the one in which the author has selected the topics and ideas that are most important and most appropriate to the maturity level of the intended reader. By omitting less relevant information, he can use the space for specific illustrative material necessary to build the selected generalizations in an interest-catching manner.

To evaluate the clarity of organization and the adequacy with which generalizations are developed in a textbook, the teacher may apply these questions:

1. Do major ideas stand out sharply, with minor ideas subordinated?
2. Do major ideas follow one another in logical order?
3. Are relationships between ideas expressed clearly, through such techniques as chapter introductions and summaries, unified paragraphs with topic sentences, and adequate transitions?
4. Does the author limit the number of concepts, generalizations, names of persons, and events? Does he elaborate on each with definite examples and supporting detail?

Style of Writing. Style of writing affects the readability of text materials. Not all or even the most important aspects of writing style can be measured objectively. Readability research has been directed toward determining which elements of style seem to be related most closely to reading difficulty and which combinations of elements can be combined into formulas for quick and accurate predictions of reading levels. Vocabulary difficulty, sentence length, and sentence structure are identified as the crucial elements, and most readability formulas are based upon a measure of at least two of the three. For clues to the level of reading difficulty, a teacher may apply one of these formulas to random samples of the written material. If the number of samples is large enough, the application of a formula will give a fairly accurate measure of the whole book. The most widely used formulas are the Dale-Chall, the Flesch, and the Lorge. They can be applied relatively quickly, and the results can be highly useful to the social studies teacher in his evaluation of reading materials. Some of the Selected Readings contain instructions for the use of these formulas.

With all their usefulness, reading formulas have limitations. One limitation is that they may measure vocabulary simplicity and sentence length, yet fail to demonstrate that the material being tested is poorly organized and lacks interest appeal. Indeed, if all sentences are short, the material may be monotonous to read. Another limitation is that formulas cannot give an accurate measure of vocabulary difficulty. When familiar words are used in unfamiliar contexts, they may not be understood by the reader. The meaning of "free" may be easily grasped when it is used to denote "free of charge"; when used in terms such as "free country" or "free economy," the word is subject to widely different interpretations. Readability formulas also fail to take into consideration the extent to which authors define new terms either directly or in context. Clearly such formulas do not tell the whole story, but if used with an understanding of their limitations, they provide a valuable check on the reading level of textbooks.

The answers to the following questions will help a teacher determine whether style in which a textbook is written is likely to promote reader understanding:

1. Does the author adjust vocabulary to grade level? Does he limit the number of difficult words even though they are defined, and explain difficult terms directly or in context?
2. Does the author avoid long, involved sentences, keeping them to an average length suitable to the grade level and avoiding numerous prepositional phrases, parenthetical expressions, and dependent clauses?

USEFULNESS OF GRAPHIC MATERIALS. A study by Lewerenz, made some years ago, indicated that illustrations in textbooks improved the understanding of eighth-graders by as much as 15 per cent.¹ There is reason to believe that illustrations are also important in helping older students build generalizations. It is important, therefore, that teachers evaluate the illustrations used in textbooks. Answers to the following questions will help in doing so:

Are the illustrations accurate and up-to-date?

Do tables, charts, and graphics present accurate and current data?

Do photographs present accurate impressions of contemporary life rather than stereotypes?

Are various points of view presented in cartoons relating to controversial questions?

¹ Lewerenz, Alfred S. "Some Results of a Visual Education Class in Junior High School Social Studies Taught with the Aid of Flat Pictures," *Los Angeles Educational Research Bulletin*, 8, (October, 1929), 4-16.

Are processes that are illustrated those in current use?

Are there any photographs of recent events?

Are the illustrations interesting?

Do photographs show some process or action relating to themes of human interest?

Do cartoons appeal to the maturity level of the intended reader?

Are pictorial graphics used more extensively than other kinds?

Are illustrations selected and presented so as to develop important ideas?

Are they large enough, clear enough to be readable?

Where such techniques are of value, are quantitative data and comparisons shown in graphic form?

Are maps used to orient students to the places discussed in the text?

Are maps simple, not confused with too much data?

Do at least some of the maps include physical features and lines of latitude and longitude?

Are illustrations placed close to pertinent text material, with references in the legend to the text and vice versa?

Do legends help to build understandings and skills? Do they suggest activities that will develop skill in interpreting and applying the illustrative materials?

Is there a balance among different types of illustrations, with types appropriate to the subject being discussed?

USEFULNESS OF TEACHING AIDS. For a skilled teacher, the teaching aids are the least important feature of a textbook, because if they are weak, the teacher can supplement them. Effective teaching aids, however, can stimulate both teacher and students; properly adapted, they can help the busy teacher in his planning. Answers to questions such as these will help evaluate teaching aids:

Are the activities and study questions useful and realistic?

Are there questions to guide student reading?

Do study questions demand reorganization of the material and establishment of relationships, rather than sheer recall?

Do some activities require the application of information to the solution of problems or to current issues?

Are there some activities which emphasize skill development as well as understandings?

Are there some exercises that insure student use of graphics?

Are activities suggested for the investigation of interesting topics that could not be treated in the text because of space limitations?

Are there suggestions which encourage young people to participate in community affairs or take action concerning the topics studied?

Is there a balance between activities to be carried out by individuals, by small groups, and by the entire class?

Are the activities practical, in terms of time and typical school resources and procedures?

Does each activity help achieve some important objective of the course?

Are the reference features of the textbook useful?

Does the table of contents provide a useful outline of the organization of the textbook?

Is the index accurate? Is it full enough to be useful? Does it follow the standard form?

Is the material in the appendix of real use?

Are the bibliographies adequate?

Do they provide for a range in interests and in reading abilities?

Are listings selective rather than inclusive?

Are references annotated?

Do bibliographies cite audio-visual materials and pamphlets, or sources of these materials?

SCORECARD. Teachers in some schools have worked out scorecards for use in evaluating textbooks. These rating scales list criteria similar to those discussed above. Each book may be rated poor, fair, good, or excellent with regard to each point in the scale. If each criterion is weighted according to the importance given it by teachers, and if each rating is assigned a numerical score, teachers can figure out total scores for each book in a relatively objective fashion. A summary scorecard, such as that in Chart 3, can then be used to compare the textbooks that are being considered.

IMPROVING TEACHING THROUGH TEXTBOOK EVALUATION. Although some teachers never have opportunity to select their own textbooks, all should be aware of the characteristics of a good text. Each teacher needs to examine carefully the texts he uses in order to know their strengths and weaknesses. Knowing the reading level of various textbooks, the teacher can adjust reading assignments to differences in reading ability among students. If his examination of a book reveals a high frequency of difficult or undefined

CHART 3

SUMMARY TEXTBOOK SCORECARD

Major criteria	Books *						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Suitability for course							
Accuracy of material							
Recency of material							
Appropriateness of reading level							
Usefulness of graphic materials							
Usefulness of teaching aids							
Total score							

* On the back of this card, list each textbook rated, with complete bibliographical data. The list numbers must correspond with numbers on this card.

terms, the teacher is forewarned. He prepares students for them prior to reading assignments. When the textbook fails to provide enough help for students in relating ideas or in selecting major ideas, the teacher gives such help during class discussions or through assigned activities. It may be important to expand on some topics or generalizations which are not developed sufficiently in the textbook. The teacher can contribute details and examples himself, or he can direct students to other sources of information. If inaccuracies occur in the text, the teacher can correct them, or, better yet, give students exercises in which they check for accuracy.

Teachers can profitably use the illustrations and teaching aids found in most current textbooks. In choosing study questions and activities for class use, however, the teacher should be critical, selecting only those that are suitable for the particular class. Almost always, he needs to adapt and supplement the textbook suggestions. Illustrations need careful scrutiny in order to determine how they can be used best and where they must be supplemented.

By knowing the strengths and weaknesses of the textbooks used in his classes, the teacher can help young people learn more effectively.

Textbooks can be a positive or a limiting force in the social studies classroom, depending on the use that is made of them. A basic text can provide a sound course organization, a common core of reading, and a focus for study exercises. Exclusive reliance on one textbook, however, ignores reading differences among students and presents them with but a single interpretation of events.

Moreover, most texts need to be supplemented on some topics. Consequently, more and more teachers combine the use of a basic text with the use of a few copies of additional texts and many other reading materials of the types discussed in the next chapter. In order to purchase those texts most suitable for his class and in order to help pupils find and use appropriate materials, the teacher must evaluate textbooks for class use.

The value of a good text in the hands of a competent teacher must never be underestimated. The teacher who makes wise use of the modern textbook as one of a variety of materials can develop stimulating social studies classes.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

ALEXANDER, ALBERT. "The Gray Flannel Cover on the American History Textbook," *Social Education*, 24 (January, 1960), 11-14.

A plea for less conformity and more interpretation, for honest treatment of historical problems, and for stimulating textbooks.

GARDNER, WILLIAM E. "Aspects of Books that Affect Readability and Use in Social Studies," in Helen M. Robinson (ed.), *Materials for Reading*, Supplementary Educational Monograph, No. 86. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957. Pp. 170-74.

Considers subject matter, style, and format as factors affecting reading level of material.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION (Washington, D.C.).

Committee on Asiatic Studies. *Treatment of Asia in American Textbooks*. 1946. Pp. 104.

Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials on Inter-American Subjects. *Latin America in School and College Teaching Materials*. 1944. Pp. 443.

Committee on the Study of Teaching Materials in Intergroup Relations. *Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials*. 1949. Pp. 231.

These studies report findings concerning the extent of treatment of topics, the accuracy of facts and interpretations, and the probable effect of statements upon attitudes of readers.

FLESCHE, RUDOLF. *How to Test Readability*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1951.

Describes a readability formula and explains its use in determining reading level of materials.

HORN, ERNEST. *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1937. Chs. 4-5.

A treatment of the difficulties of social studies concepts and the factors making for easy and difficult reading.

HUNNICUTT, C. W., and IVERSON, WILLIAM J. (eds.). *Research in the Three R's*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1958.

Includes instructions for using the Spache, Lorge, and Dale-Chall readability formulas.

McCLURE, DOROTHY. *The Treatment of International Agencies in School History Textbooks*. Washington, D.C.: UNESCO Relations Staff, Department of State, 1950.

In addition to using the criteria developed for the American Council on Education studies cited above, this report evaluates the extent to which important generalizations are developed in textbooks.

PETERSON, ELEANOR M. *Aspects of Readability in the Social Studies*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954.

Describes a study in which rewriting materials from world history to improve organization and interest resulted in improved comprehension.

WIGGINS, SAM P. *Successful High School Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1958.

Pages 173-79 describe effective use of a text for a course in world history.

NON-TEXTBOOK READING MATERIALS

The need to use a wide variety of reading materials in teaching social studies has long been recognized and has been stressed in earlier sections of this book. One part of the social studies teacher's job is to build and use a varied collection of reading materials: biographies, specialized accounts, source materials, reference works, pamphlets, periodicals and newspapers, and fiction. An adequate collection of materials includes non-text materials that supplement and complement text materials, materials of varying reading difficulty, and materials which are interesting as well as authentic and accurate. In addition, an adequate collection provides an appropriate balance among different types of materials, is arranged attractively, and is easily accessible to students.

TYPES OF MATERIALS

To make effective use of reading materials, the teacher must recognize the special uses and limitations of each type. The kinds of materials that are available are discussed in the next pages.

BIOGRAPHIES. The use of biographies tends to generate student interest in the people and the topics they are studying. In part this is because biographies are more detailed than text materials can be, in part because they add an element of human interest, and in part because they use a narrative form.

A well-written biography helps youngsters understand more fully both the importance of the person described and the events through which he or she lived. A biography of Thomas Jefferson throws light on social institutions of his day as well as on important events of the Revolutionary War, the Confederation, and the early

national period. Stories of humanitarians such as Jane Addams point up serious social problems of modern times.

Biographical reading may affect attitudes and help students understand points of view different from their own. Who can read the story of Marian Anderson without gaining a little more insight into what it means to be a member of a minority group? Or who can read a life of Robert E. Lee without gaining a better understanding of the feelings of men who supported the Confederacy? In addition to making pupils more sensitive to other people's feelings, biographies help at least some students develop values. Adolescence is a period of hero-worship. As a pupil identifies himself with a hero of the past or a present-day leader, he may also identify with the causes for which this person worked or the values for which he stood.

The teacher can use biographies to promote a critical awareness of sources. When several pupils compare accounts of the same person, they are likely to find differing interpretations or conflicting statements of fact. Or pupils may discover that a biography of someone like Andrew Jackson differs from the treatment given him in their textbook. Discovering conflicting information and disparity in viewpoints makes pupils more likely to read critically and to check on their sources of information.

Biographies should not be used indiscriminately. Although many are interesting and accurate, others are dull, or biased, or unscholarly. In examining a biography, the teacher should check facts and interpretations against those in a standard work accepted by scholars in the field. At the very least, he can consult a reference such as the *Dictionary of American Biography*.

SPECIALIZED ACCOUNTS. There exists a great body of specialized materials, each dealing with some particular event, place, or topic. Only parts of some can be used by secondary school students; others are highly interesting and sufficiently limited in scope to be read in entirety during the course of a unit. These materials contain fuller, more specific accounts of topics than do textbooks, and they can add much to pupils' understanding and enjoyment. Some of the book series which include specialized accounts are listed on page 327.

SOURCE MATERIALS AND BOOKS OF READINGS. A number of source books and books of readings are available. Source books contain primary materials such as documents, speeches, and eye-witness reports. Source books may also contain secondary accounts contemporary to the period studied, such as newspaper articles and editorials. Books of readings generally go beyond source materials

to include excerpts from secondary accounts containing particularly good descriptions or differing interpretations.

Social studies teachers should not neglect other source materials that are readily at hand. Diaries and autobiographies, whether of living people or those of the past, throw light upon ways in which different people view problems and events. Local, state, and federal governments can provide a vast quantity of such source materials as tax forms, ballots, legislative calendars, copies of bills and statutes, and official reports of investigations. Local banks and manufacturing firms can provide a variety of forms used in business transactions. The local library or museum may possess diaries or letters of early settlers and copies of early newspapers published in the region. The imaginative teacher will be able to locate many source materials, particularly of a local nature, which are not contained in published collections.

Source materials have a number of values. Like specialized accounts and biographies, they are likely to treat a topic more concretely and fully than does the textbook. Various sources will be used for different purposes. Some governmental documents will be used as references for checking on facts or as illustrations to clarify terms used in textbooks. Eyewitness accounts or comments by men and women who saw an event at first hand, or actually participated in it, can be used to create a sense of realism frequently lacking in other materials. Primary sources also offer a means of looking into the minds of people of different eras or groups and seeing how they felt about events.

Source materials can be used to help students understand the historical method, to make them more alert to the need for evaluating sources of information. Conflicting eyewitness accounts of an event can help them see that it may be difficult to ascertain exact facts of a situation. Through the use of source materials, students can discover that it is frequently necessary to be satisfied with less than certainty, to estimate the degree of probability that events took place in a certain way.

IMAGINATIVE LITERATURE. Fiction, plays, and poetry have a place in the social studies reading program. Good literature stimulates the reader to relive in his imagination the experiences portrayed, thus enabling him to see more clearly the impact of places, conditions, and events upon the lives of human beings. Instead of reading that millions of men were killed or wounded in a war or were unemployed during a depression—abstract figures which are of little meaning to most people—the reader sees the individual affected by these events. So powerful is much imaginative litera-

ture that the reader identifies with the people involved, feeling the emotions they feel.

This ability of imaginative literature to create a vivid experience for the reader helps pupils develop an interest in and greater understanding of many topics far removed from their personal experience. Events take on a feeling of reality. The reader understands, perhaps for the first time, that these things happened to real people and had both physical and psychological impact upon them. Imaginative literature can take pupils into past eras, to places too distant to visit, through dangerous experiences, or into the minds of people in their own society whom they fail to understand. Literature written by people of other places or times is an aid in interpreting their cultures.

Imaginative literature often affects the reader's attitudes, making him more sensitive to the feelings of others, more willing to consider the effects of actions upon other human beings. Where pupils have not developed rigid mind sets, literature may modify attitudes toward minority groups, people of different socioeconomic status, or a host of topics such as war or dictatorship.

In spite of these positive assets, teachers should use imaginative literature with caution. Obviously, such material is not factual, although it may give a correct general impression. It substitutes imaginary human beings for real people. At times, to have a flowing narrative, the writer must give an imagined account when the real facts are unknown. Because of the requirements of the dramatic form, an author must limit his characters. Thus if a novelist or a playwright is dealing with a topic such as the Salem witch trials, he must ascribe to a few characters things which happened to many people. To obtain dramatic effect, he must eliminate many details, focusing on the more striking events which stimulated him to write his novel or play. As a result, the book or play may make conditions appear worse than they actually were. For example, the Joad family of *The Grapes of Wrath* was not a typical migrant family either in size, monetary wealth, or misfortunes. Nevertheless, thousands of migrants faced similar conditions, some better and some worse, and these conditions aroused many to anger. A novel such as this illustrates a point of view as well as a problem.

In evaluating imaginative literature for accuracy, the teacher must consider the over-all effect rather than isolated facts. Does the account, when taken as a whole, present a reasonable picture of the period or event described? Does it recreate the atmosphere of the era? If it focuses upon an important historical event, does it provide authentic detail even though adding imaginary char-

acters? Does it develop interpretations that are accepted by social scientists today? If not, does the work have value as an illustration of how people felt about a problem or event at a particular period? Can other materials be found to present opposite viewpoints or interpretations, and to correct inaccuracies?

The imaginative literature to be used in social studies should be selected in the light of such criteria as those given above. It should always be used in conjunction with non-fictional materials.

REFERENCE WORKS. Students in social studies classes frequently need statistics and facts not found in their textbooks or in specialized accounts. Pupils should have access to many types of reference works and should be taught which references to use for particular purposes. Although most schools cannot afford many reference works for each social studies classroom, the school library should own many of those listed on pages 326-27.

FUGITIVE MATERIALS. Pamphlets, leaflets, newspapers and magazines are often classified as "fugitive materials"—materials that are useful for a relatively brief period of time, and that require an effective filing system if they are to be located quickly when needed. Fugitive materials offer the main advantages of providing current information or supplementary information not found in text materials. In addition, because they represent many points of view, they can be used to help pupils learn the critical use of sources of information. (For full discussion of the use of newspapers and magazines, see Chapter 14.)

Pamphlets, leaflets, and magazines must be carefully evaluated prior to their use with a class, however. Although many of them are authentic, some are inaccurate or badly slanted. Inaccurate and biased materials can be used to real purpose if the teacher is aware of the limitations and uses the pamphlets, magazine articles, and other such materials to help pupils identify inaccuracies and persuasion devices.

The social studies teacher who uses many fugitive materials is faced with a very real problem of keeping track of them. Under what topics should they be filed? How can the teacher know who has the materials? Who is to refile materials after use? How can older materials be weeded out as they lose their value? The school librarian can help the teacher answer these questions. The teacher can also arrange for students to act as classroom librarians; they can sign material out, check it in and refile it, and remind class members of overdue items. Certainly the problems involved in handling fugitive materials should not prevent their use.

There is a wide range of these materials available for use in the classroom. Some are free or cost very little. Significant articles can be clipped from newspapers and magazines used in the current events program, and filed for future reference. Some useful sources of pamphlet materials are listed on pages 324-26, and sources of current events materials are indicated on page 249. Magazines appropriate for school use are evaluated in a book by Laura Martin (see Selected Readings).

BUILDING A READING COLLECTION

A first step in developing a useful collection of non-text reading material is to determine how adequate the available collection is for the different topics taught in the social studies courses. It should also be evaluated in terms of the criteria listed at the beginning of this chapter. Suggestions in Chapter 17 for determining the reading level of texts are also applicable to non-text materials. As he evaluates the existing collection, the teacher should weed out those materials which are no longer useful.

Having identified gaps in the collection, the teacher must locate materials to fill them. There are several standard bibliographical tools he can use to do so. Professional journals such as *Social Education* and the *Journal of Geography* carry reviews and advertisements of recently published materials. Bibliographical guides such as those listed on page 323 also provide information about current publications. Others help in locating standard, older materials. These guides are available in many school libraries or public libraries. In addition, the social studies teacher should check the various series of books that are listed, with annotations, on page 327. The school librarian can give valuable aid in locating materials, once the teacher has identified the gaps which need to be filled.

Developing an adequate reading collection costs money, even though many free or inexpensive materials can be used. Again, the social studies teacher must seek the cooperation of the school librarian, who has an annual budget—in most schools. Teachers who show an interest in the library, and have their pupils use it regularly, are likely to find that the librarian will order many of the books they request. Indeed, she frequently asks for suggestions from the different departments. Since many teachers in the typical school fail to respond, those who request materials often get much of what they have suggested. The teacher should read reviews, consult with the librarian, and if possible examine books in bookstores and larger libraries before placing his request. If the books

fail to circulate, the librarian may be loath to accept his advice in the future.

Frequently the social studies teacher can obtain other funds if he knows what he wants and can justify the expenditure. Some schools provide a budget for each department to use for supplies and equipment. In other schools the teacher must persuade the principal or superintendent of his need before any funds are allotted. Administrators are usually cooperative if teachers show that they have made a careful evaluation of the existing collection, that they have given thought to the materials requested, and that they know exactly how they wish to use them.

DEVELOPING A READING PROGRAM

To encourage students to read widely, the teacher must stimulate their *interest and guide them to appropriate materials*. He must check on the reading they are doing and provide opportunities for them to use the information and ideas they have obtained.

STIMULATING INTEREST. The teacher can use many techniques to stimulate students' interest in reading a variety of books and other materials. He can arrange table displays with some of the books or pamphlets open to particular illustrations or chapter titles. Book jackets can be posted on the bulletin board, each one accompanied by an excerpt from a published review or a comment written by a student who has read it previously.

After students have identified the questions they will investigate during a unit, the teacher may distribute an annotated reading list and tell the class a little about several of the items. His comments on each one should point up the value of the book and some of its interesting features. He may describe it briefly, perhaps reading a particularly interesting excerpt. Or he may read chapter titles that are especially provoking. If a book is well illustrated, he can show the class some of the pictures. When introducing a novel or a short story, the teacher may ask pupils to imagine themselves in a particular situation and decide what they would do, then tell them that this story describes what one person did in such a predicament. Occasionally it is effective to introduce a book by indicating something unique about it, as that it presents an unusual viewpoint, or that it is difficult but challenging, or that it has just been received by the library and no other student has had a chance to read it yet.

The teacher should make a practice of mentioning a book or two from time to time in the course of a unit. He may take a

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On the other hand, if the purpose is to teach pupils to locate information, he will mention some of the more obvious works and let pupils locate others.

Even when the purpose is to have pupils locate materials for themselves, the teacher must plan to avoid confusion at the beginning of a study session. Not all pupils can use the card catalog or the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* at the same time. It is generally wise to have some materials ready for use by part of the class while others locate additional information. The teacher may encourage some pupils to begin the search for material on their special topics while others are still completing the minimum, common assignment sheet.

CHECKING ON THE READING. The amount and quality of reading done by students must be evaluated. Some teachers require written book reports. An occasional assignment of this type may be useful, but demanding formal reports with each unit is likely to reduce student enthusiasm for reading. In any case, some pupils have techniques for preparing passable reports without reading the books. Instead of a book report, the assignment may be for the student to report on a specific topic, preferably one of his choosing, for which he must use a variety of sources. Such a report is not so easy to prepare without careful reading, and seems more meaningful to many pupils. This kind of report should not become a routine requirement in every unit, either, or it loses its challenge. An oral report, with questioning by other students and the teacher, will reveal how well the pupil has understood his reading, but there is rarely enough class time for each student to make such a report in a single unit. A number of students may arrange to present their information in the form of a radio script, a panel discussion, or some other group presentation.

To vary procedures, both for the class and for individuals, the teacher may use several of these ways of checking on reading in each unit, asking some students to give oral reports, others to report through group projects, and still others to write their reports. He should keep a record of the report form each student uses and require varied forms of reporting from each one in the course of the year.

Many teachers also use more informal ways of checking on pupils' reading. They listen carefully to class discussions, noting the degree of discernment which pupils show about books they have been reading. As pupils participate, the teacher notes that Jack presents information from a number of sources while Ray apparently did not read all of his book or at least cannot remember

few minutes at the beginning of a class period to tell about an interesting book or articles related to the topic. Or, during a discussion, he may refer to an appropriate book or read from it. If the teacher is enthusiastic about reading materials and refers to them frequently, he is likely to stimulate wide reading.

Student comments about books can be used to arouse interest, for an enthusiastic student comment may carry more weight than the teacher's recommendation. When the teacher first mentions a book to the class, he may ask any of the students who have read it to tell what they found interesting or useful about it. After pupils have begun reading for a unit, the teacher may take a few minutes at the beginning of an hour for students to describe the materials they are using. Some teachers ask students to turn in cards giving their frank reactions to materials they have read. These cards are saved and used to introduce the various books and stories to other classes.

For variety, instead of presenting books orally, the teacher may arrange materials on tables according to topics within the unit. When students enter the wide-reading phase of the unit the class can be given a browsing period in which students go to the tables, find a book of interest, and return to their seats to read. If a student wishes, he may sample several books before making his selection. This browsing period may take place in either the classroom or the library.

GUIDING THE READING. Rather than work on other tasks during a reading period, the teacher should observe students and be ready to give advice. If he notices that a poor reader has selected a book which is too difficult, he can take him one or two others that are more suitable. If he notes that a good reader has chosen too easy a book, he may suggest others that are more appropriate for him. The teacher may explain his reason frankly, or he may (if it is true) say that he is proposing the substitution in order to be sure someone in the class reads on this aspect of the unit topic. A student is likely to be pleased that the teacher is treating him individually and accept the teacher's advice—if the teacher has previously recommended suitable and worthwhile books. To provide such guidance, the teacher must know the reading levels and interests of students as well as the reading materials.

How much should a teacher guide pupils as they enter the wide-reading phase of the unit? The answer is determined by the purpose at hand. If it is to stimulate wide reading on a topic or interest in reading, the teacher may give considerable advice and aid in locating materials, even to listing exact chapters or pages.

1. How do the causes of arrest compare with those in this country? Are people arrested for political reasons? for what they say or write? for religious beliefs?
2. Are warrants used when people are arrested?
3. What rights does the arrested person have? What kind of trial does he get if any?
4. What are the rights of a person in prison?
5. Are there any other indications of the status of civil liberties in the USSR?

Students have read a variety of materials: accounts in high school and college textbooks, pamphlets, books by those who have visited Russia, books by social scientists, reports by Russian citizens who have fled from Russia, and magazine articles. Each pupil has read something of interest to him, at his own reading level. While they were reading, the teacher kept a record of what each was using so that he could call on particular students for certain information during the ensuing discussion.

The teacher prepares a lesson plan for the discussion by listing under the subquestions each main point to be considered, together with the books or articles in which this point is discussed. He records beside the title or author of each source the names of students who have used it.

At an appropriate point in the discussion of civil liberties in the USSR, the teacher asks, "From your readings, how would you answer the question raised previously about trials? What rights did the people you read about have after they were arrested?" As students discuss, it will become clear that some people had trials, some did not. John explains, on the basis of his reading, that Russian criminal statutes call for different types of trials depending on the nature of the crime. Gloria asks John the date of the criminal statutes he is quoting and describes the situation she found in reading about a different period. Jean asks whether the authors are dependable sources of information. Discovering that Gloria's material was written by a refugee, Jean asks how much trust can be placed in such a person's report and points out that he may be biased.

At times the discussion moves smoothly with little help from the teacher. At other times he has to take the lead. He asks Jo whether the account he read agreed with information that others have been reporting. He asks Marjorie what kind of trial the author of her book reported. Because the teacher knows the materials, he is able to use his lesson plan to draw many students

much of what he has read. The teacher can discover a great deal about pupils' reading by discussing it with them informally during study sessions, or before and after class, and by making notes during work sessions about what pupils are reading.

USING THE READING MATERIALS. If the reading program is to have continuing interest and value, it should be focused on questions related to the unit topic, not on an attempt to have pupils read so many pages or books during a week, a marking period, or a year. One of the values of the program comes from pooling information and ideas students have gathered from their varied reading.

The teacher, or the teacher planning with the class, must decide at the beginning of the unit how the reading materials will be used. Should all students read material concerning the same questions and then consider these questions in a general discussion? Should the class divide the questions among groups of students, each group responsible for one major question? The second plan can be followed by a general discussion of each question, with those students who have read about it participating actively and the others listening, asking questions, and taking notes. In a variation of this method, the work can be divided so that small groups and individuals will investigate particular aspects of the questions and report in some way to the entire class. To use this technique successfully, the teacher and class must work out a schedule of discussion, reports, and other activities so that the information will be presented in an organized sequence.

The plan selected should depend on a number of factors. Is there enough material on each of the major questions so that all pupils can obtain information about it? Is there material at different reading levels? Is there enough time for the entire class to study each subtopic? What plan was used in the last unit?

Most teachers find it easier to use a wide-reading program related to small-group and individual work than to pool the results through a general discussion. Consequently, further attention is given here to conducting a class discussion based on wide reading. Methods of using group work and reports have been presented in Chapters 8 and 10.

The method of pooling information through a general discussion can be clarified by an example. A class studying the Soviet Union has investigated the question, "What is the status of civil liberties in the USSR and its satellite areas?" To give focus for individual reading, these subquestions have been identified:

materials, and various community resources, non-text reading materials help make a social studies program effective.

SOURCES OF MATERIALS

BIBLIOGRAPHIC GUIDES

CURRENT GUIDES

The Booklist and Subscription Book Bulletin. Chicago: American Library Association. Published semimonthly except August.

Includes brief reviews of adult social science books, fiction, books for young people, and free and inexpensive materials.

Biography Index. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co. Cumulative volumes and quarterly supplements.

An index to current biographical books and magazine articles.

Bulletin of the Center for Children's Books. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. Published monthly except August.

Prepared by the University of Chicago Graduate Library School. Identifies reading level, and presents critical evaluations of new books for elementary and junior high school pupils.

Checklist of State Publications. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. Published monthly.

Prepared by the Library of Congress. Lists publications of state governments.

Senior Booklist of Current Books. Milton, Massachusetts: Secondary Education Board. Published annually.

Contains paragraph annotations of recommended books appearing during the previous year. Reading levels are indicated. For Grades 9-12.

Free and Inexpensive Learning Materials. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Service, Peabody College for Teachers. Published annually.

Includes brief annotations of pamphlets, charts, pictures, and posters on over 200 topics.

Paperbound Books in Print. New York: R. R. Bowker Co. Issued quarterly.

Arranges books according to topic, author, and title.

Selected United States Government Publications. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. Free. Issued every two weeks.

Lists a wide variety of leaflets and booklets, with purchase numbers and prices.

Standard Catalog for High School Libraries. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co. Cumulative edition published every few years. Yearly supplements.

Lists and annotates books which are recommended for secondary school students. Includes some pamphlets.

United States Government Publications Monthly Catalog. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

Lists all publications of the Government Printing Office. Arranged by government agency preparing the material. Subject and title index.

Vertical File Index. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co. Monthly bulletins plus cumulative annual volume.

Lists new pamphlets by subject and title. Includes descriptive notes and prices or conditions under which materials may be obtained. Cites reprints and mimeographed materials.

into the discussion. He knows which students can be expected to contribute information on particular points and which cannot. And he knows the reading materials themselves so that he can ask such questions as: "Jim, you have been reading the book by ——. Do you remember the incident in which . . . ? What light does that incident throw on this question?" "Sue, so far as you could tell from your book, what period is the author describing? According to the copyright date, how long was it afterwards that he published his book?"

After this discussion the class draws conclusions about the status of civil liberties in the USSR. They have discovered that there is agreement about some points, violent disagreement about others. Where there is disagreement, they consider whether it is because their sources deal with different periods, or because some may be presenting a biased viewpoint, or because there may be no set policy in the Soviet Union on this matter. Students point out that some facts are given in two or three books, others in only one. They discuss the importance of corroboration by independent witnesses and the reliability of sources used by those who have not witnessed the events described. Finally, they decide which facts they can accept on the basis of the evidence, which they must disregard, and the degree of probability which they can estimate for others. As a result of this wide reading and discussion, students comprehend more clearly the meaning of textbook statements about the USSR, and they have become more aware of the need to evaluate sources.

Using a wide variety of reading materials requires planning on the part of the teacher, as well as knowledge of both the materials and the students. It makes teaching more exciting than carrying on a recitation or discussion based on a single text. Students find discussions more stimulating, as they hear information they have not found in their own reading—a quite different situation from reciting to prove that they have read the assignment. A wide reading program helps each student to participate, whatever the level of his ability. If each pupil is using material appropriate to his level, he can make a real contribution to class discussion regardless of whether he is a poor, an average, or a good reader. Usually, each will have found something unique, important, and interesting in his particular source of information. A wide reading program helps pupils develop meaningful generalizations and stimulates interest. In addition, the use of many materials provides opportunity to weigh sources critically. Used with textbooks, audio-visual

Anti-Defamation League of B'nai Brith, New York, N.Y.

Publishes the "Freedom Pamphlets" and distributes other materials of use to students and to the teacher.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, New York, N.Y.

Publishes the *International Conciliation* pamphlets.

Carrie Chapman Catt Memorial Fund, Washington, D.C.

Publishes the "Freedom Agenda Pamphlets" which include materials on elections and internal security as well as on civil liberties.

Center for Information on America, Washington, Connecticut.

Publishes a monthly discussion guide entitled *Vital Issues*.

Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D.C.

Publishes a variety of materials on national and international topics. Specializes on economics.

Conference on Economic Progress, Washington, D.C.

Publishes a series of studies related to problems of maintaining prosperity and increasing production. The booklets include many charts and figures.

Congressional Digest Corporation, Washington, D.C.

Publishes the monthly *Congressional Digest*. Each issue deals with the pros and cons of some national problem.

Council for Advancement of Secondary Education, Washington, D.C.

Publishes a "CASE Economic Literacy Series" for high school students.

Foreign Policy Association, New York, N.Y.

Publishes the "Headline Series" as well as more scholarly reports.

Information services and embassies of different countries.

Write for addresses from the Department of Public Information, United Nations, New York, N.Y.

International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, New York, N.Y.

The official distributor of United Nations publications. Some of these are also available free from the Department of Public Information, United Nations, New York, N.Y.

League of Women Voters of the United States, Washington, D.C.

Publishes materials on many political and economic problems. State leagues publish materials on state and local topics.

National Association of Manufacturers, Special Services Department, New York, N.Y.

Specializes on economic materials but publishes some booklets on political topics.

National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C.

Distributes the Tufts "Living Democracy" booklets for high school students.

National Industrial Conference Board, New York, N.Y.

Publishes booklets and a "Road Maps of Industry" series of charts on economic affairs.

National Planning Association, Washington, D.C.

Publishes several pamphlet series on a variety of problems.

North Central Association, Foreign Relations Project, Chicago, Ill.

Prepares the International Relations Project pamphlets on different areas of the world. Designed for secondary schools.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES

CARLSEN, G. ROBERT, and ALM, RICHARD. *Social Understanding Through Literature*, Bulletin No. 28. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1954. Pp. 111.

Contains paragraph annotations, including the reading difficulty, of novels, plays, and fictionalized biographies. Arranged under topics commonly taught in the ninth and twelfth grades.

CARPENTER, HELEN M. *Gateways to American History: An Annotated Graded List of Books for Slow Learners in Junior High School*. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 255. (In process of revision)

Books are arranged according to chronological period. Biographies are listed by field of endeavor. Each annotation includes a synopsis of the book, an evaluation of its appeal and reading level, and a description of its format.

HANDLIN, OSCAR, and others. *Harvard Guide to American History*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1955. Pp. 689.

The authoritative guide to reference materials and books on American History.

HEATON, MARGARET H., and LEWIS, HELEN B. *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*, rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1954. Pp. 215.

Arranges biographies and books of imaginative literature according to progressive degrees of difficulty under a number of topics commonly taught in Grades 9 and 12.

LOGASSA, HANNAH. *Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Junior and Senior High Schools*. Philadelphia: McKinley, 1958. Pp. 280.

One-line annotations of books which are listed under Ancient, Medieval, and Modern History, Latin American History, Canadian History, and American History. The section on the United States is broken into periods.

SPIESEKE, ALICE W., and others. *World History Book List for Schools, A Selection for Supplementary Reading*, Bulletin No. 31. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1959. Pp. 119.

Part I contains annotations and evaluations of the reading difficulty of over 400 books, arranged alphabetically by author. In Part II these titles are listed according to chronological era, topic, and area of the world.

FREE AND INEXPENSIVE MATERIALS

American Association for the United Nations, Inc., New York, N.Y.

American Civil Liberties Union, New York, N.Y.

Publishes a series of pamphlets, and weekly, monthly, and annual reports on civil liberties and civil rights.

American Enterprise Association, Washington, D.C.

Publishes a "National Economic Problems" series and a "Bill Analysis" series.

American Federation of Labor and Congress of Industrial Organizations, Washington, D.C.

Publishes material on political and social topics as well as on economic problems.

American Foundation for Continuing Education, Chicago, Ill.

Publishes a series of case studies on American politics and on social and economic problems.

American Geographical Society, New York, N.Y.

Publishes an inexpensive series of *Focus* leaflets on different areas of the world.

Statesman's Yearbook. London: The Macmillan & Co., Ltd.

Contains information on different countries of the world.

Yearbooks of the Department of Agriculture.

Each one is on a specific topic, such as Soils, Minerals, etc.

OTHER STATISTICAL REFERENCES

County and City Data Book. Washington, D.C.: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1956.

Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1957. Washington, D.C.: Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1960.

BOOK SERIES

American Heritage Junior Library. New York: American Heritage Publishing Co.

Designed for junior high school students, each book includes many illustrations and is checked for accuracy by an authority on the subject. The company also publishes one adult book each year, and issues the hardcover magazines *American Heritage* and *Horizon*.

The Challenge Books. New York: Coward-McCann, Inc.

A series of well-illustrated books dealing with countries and regions. Junior high level.

Great Life in Brief Series. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

A series of biographies for the senior high school.

Julian Messner Shelf of Biographies. New York: Julian Messner, Inc.

Readable biographies for junior high school students.

Land of the Free Series. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.

Fictionalized accounts of immigrants who settled in America in different periods and places. For better junior high readers or average readers in the senior high school.

Landmark Books and *World Landmark Books.* New York: Random House, Inc.

Two series of biographies and accounts of important events. *Landmark Books* deal with American History and are useful at the junior high level. *World Landmark Books* are easy reading for junior high school world history students.

Mainstream of America Series. New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc.

Contains highly readable historical accounts written for adults. Useful with better readers in the senior high.

New American Nation Series. New York: Harper & Bros.

Useful reference material for better readers in senior high school.

North Star Books. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

A series of historical books designed for students aged twelve and over.

Portraits of the Nations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

Each book describes the land, history, and culture of a different country. Books vary in difficulty from junior to senior high reading level.

Reference Shelf. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co.

Books are sold individually or in sets by subscription. Each presents the pros and cons of some important issue of the day.

Signature Books. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc.

Accounts of men and women from various parts of the world. Most of these books are easy reading for junior high students.

Public Affairs Committee, Inc., New York, N.Y.

Publishes the "Public Affairs Pamphlets" on national and international problems and on personal problems facing individuals.

Public Affairs Institute, Washington, D.C.

Publishes several series of bulletins on national and international problems.

Science Research Associates, Chicago, Ill.

Publishes the "Life Adjustment Booklets" on problems of individual adjustment and on national problems.

REFERENCE WORKS

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

General encyclopedias such as:

Encyclopaedia Britannica. Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc., 1959.

Colliers Encyclopedia. New York: P. F. Collier & Son Corp., 1950.

World Book Encyclopedia. Chicago: Field Enterprises. Annual rev.

Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia and Fact Index. Chicago: F. E. Compton & Co. Annual rev.

Specialized encyclopedias such as:

The Dictionary of American Biography. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1928-1936. Supplementary volumes published every few years.

LANGER, WILLIAM. *Encyclopedia of World History*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1952.

MORRIS, RICHARD B. *Encyclopedia of American History*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1953.

BIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES FOR LIVING PEOPLE

Current Biography. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co. Annual volumes.

Twentieth Century Authors. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co. Annual volumes.

Who's Who in America. Chicago: Marquis, Who's Who, Inc. Annual volumes.

ALMANACS AND YEARBOOKS

World Almanac and Book of Facts. New York: New York World-Telegram.

Information Please Almanac. New York: The Macmillan Co.

Annual yearbook for adult encyclopedias, e.g. *Britannica Book of the Year*.

Statistical Abstract of the United States. Washington, D.C.: United States Department of Commerce, Census Bureau.

United States Government Organization Manual. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents.

Describes each agency of the federal government.

Official Congressional Directory. Washington, D.C.: Superintendent of Documents. Published for each congress.

Contains biographical sketches of congressmen and lists of committee assignments.

Legislative manual for each state.

Usually contains state constitution, legislative and congressional district maps, sketches of members of state legislature and key administrative officials, and election returns from state.

- MAYER, JOSEPHINE, and PRIDEAUX, TOM (eds.) *Never to Die, The Egyptians in Their Own Words*. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1938.
- ROSS, JAMES B., and McLAUGHLIN, MARY M. (eds.). *The Portable Medieval Reader*. Paperback. No. P46. New York: The Viking Press, Inc., 1949.

SOURCE BOOKS AND BOOKS OF READINGS ON OTHER SOCIAL SCIENCES

- BARTHOLOMEW, PAUL C. *Summaries of Leading Cases on the Constitution*. Littlefield College Outline Paperback. Ames, Iowa: Littlefield, Adams & Co., 1958.
- CHRISTENSON, ASHER, and KIRKPATRICK, EVON (eds.). *People, Politics, and Politicians, Readings in American Government*, rev. ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1953.
- DIXON, ROBERT G., and PLISCHKE, ELMER (eds.). *American Government—Basic Documents and Materials*. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1950.
- DOHRS, FRED E.; SOMMERS, LAWRENCE M.; and PETTERSON, DONALD R. (eds.). *Outside Readings in Geography*. New York: The Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1955.
- NEWMAN, EDWIN S. (ed.). *The Freedom Reader*. Paperback, No. D/2. New York: Oceana Publications, Inc., 1955.
- ANDERSON, MARGARET S. *Splendour of Earth, An Anthology of Travel*. London: George Philip and Son, Ltd., 1954.
- Selections are arranged under such topics as climate, weather, winds, oceans, earthquakes, and the work of rivers and rain.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

- BROWN, RALPH A., and BROWN, MARION R. "Biography in the Social Studies: The Values of Biography," *Social Education*, 18 (February, 1954), 67-70.
- Summarizes values as seen by many historians and educators.
- FAIR, JEAN. "Methods of Increasing Competence in Interpreting Social Studies Materials, in Grades Seven to Nine," in William S. Gray (ed.), *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas*, Supplementary Education Monograph, No. 76. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Pp. 179-83.
- Describes the use of a variety of reading materials in a unit on "The People of Our Country."
- FAIR, JEAN. "Reading Materials for the Unit Plan of Study in Social Studies," in Helen M. Robinson (ed.), *Materials for Reading*, Supplementary Education Monograph, No. 86. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1957. Pp. 158-62.
- Shows great variety of types of materials which can be used to achieve different purposes.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

- CARLSEN, G. ROBERT, and ALM, RICHARD S. *Social Understanding Through Literature*, Bulletin No. 28. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1954.
- Part I contains an excellent analysis of the values of literature in social studies, of ways of stimulating reading, and of methods of using the reading in class activities.
- HUNNICUTT, C. W.; and IVERSON, WILLIAM J. (eds.). *Research in the Three R's*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1958.
- Includes digests of studies by LaBrant, Lazar, and Norvell on reading interests of adolescents.

LEARNING MATERIALS

SOURCES AND BOOKS OF READINGS

LEAFLET, PAMPHLET, AND PAPERBACK SERIES

Anvil Books. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.

Each paperback book consists of an introductory interpretive account plus a series of important documents.

Meridian Documents of American History. New York: Meridian Bks., Ltd.

Each book contains many sources related to a single topic or period.

The Old South Leaflets. Boston: Old South Associates.

Each leaflet contains an important historical document or original source with historical notes.

Problems in American Civilization and Problems in European Civilization. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Paperback booklets. Each consists of a series of readings presenting different interpretations on a single historical question.

Selected Source Materials for College Research Papers. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

Each booklet contains primary source material with biographical sketches of authors. The booklets focus on individual topics.

Source Problems in World Civilization. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.

Each pamphlet contains source materials, background information, and reading lists on some historical topic.

SOURCE BOOKS AND BOOKS OF READINGS ON AMERICAN HISTORY

ANGLE, PAUL M. (ed.). *American Reader.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1958.

Includes many types of primary source materials. Arranged chronologically.

ANGLE, PAUL M. (ed.). *By These Words; Great Documents of American Liberty, Selected and Placed in Their Contemporary Setting.* Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1954.

COMMAGER, HENRY S., and NEVINS, ALAN (eds.). *The Heritage of America, Readings in American History*, rev. ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1949.

HOFSTADTER, RICHARD (ed.) *Great Issues in American History*, 2 vols., paperback ed. Vintage Books K-68A & K-68B. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1958.

HUSZAR, GEORGE B.; LITTLEFIELD, HENRY W.; and LITTLEFIELD, ARTHUR W. (eds.). *Basic American Documents.* Littlefield College Outline Paperback. Ames, Iowa: Littlefield, Adams & Co., 1953.

LEOPOLD, RICHARD W., and LINK, ARTHUR S. (eds.). *Problems in American History*, rev. ed. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957.

THORP, WILLARD; CURTI, MERLE; and BAKER, CARLOS (eds.). *American Issues*, 2 vols. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1955.

TRYON, WARREN S. (ed.). *A Mirror for Americans*, 3 vols. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952.

America as viewed by American travelers.

SOURCE BOOKS AND BOOKS OF READINGS ON WORLD HISTORY

HUGHES, PAUL L., and FRIES, ROBERT F. (eds.). *Readings in Western Civilization.* Littlefield College Outline Paperback. Ames, Iowa: Littlefield, Adams & Co., 1958.

KNOLES, G. H., and SNYDER, R. K. (eds.). *Readings in Western Civilization*, rev. ed. New York: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1954.

AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

In recent years audio-visual materials have taken a place alongside textbooks and non-text reading materials as basic resources for social studies classes. The audio-visual materials most useful in social studies include motion picture films, filmstrips, slides, still pictures, cartoons, charts and graphs, maps and globes, exhibits of various kinds, and the old, reliable chalkboard. Television, radio, and recordings also have their place. Each of these is discussed in this chapter, except for maps and globes which are treated in Chapter 12. These materials, if used in accordance with basic principles of teaching and learning, enrich the social studies program in several ways.

VALUES OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Audio-visual materials can provide the concrete images that students need to understand unfamiliar terms, ideas, or concepts. A pupil can understand such terms as "flying buttress" or "mountain gap" quickly and accurately by studying pictures or diagrams of these things. If his experience with floods has been limited to a mild flooding of streets during a heavy downpour, the need for flood control will become much clearer after he has seen a flood in a motion picture film.

Through audio-visual materials, pupils can obtain a vivid impression of many scenes, processes, and activities that they cannot experience directly. They frequently learn information that is presented through audio-visual materials more quickly and retain it longer than information which is presented through reading or discussion. These materials are effective in helping pupils follow consecutive steps in a complicated process. International exchange,

MARTIN, LAURA K. *Magazines for School Libraries*, rev. ed. New York: The H. W. Wilson Co., 1950.

Evaluates magazines for school libraries.

SHORES, LOUIS. *Instructional Materials, An Introduction for Teachers*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1960.

Identifies all major types and subtypes of instructional materials used by teachers: textbooks, reference books, reading books, serials, place media, pictures, objects, and community resources, still projections, motion pictures, recordings, radio and television.

WRONSKI, STANLEY P. *How to Locate Useful Government Publications*, How to Do It Series, No. 11. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1952.

Discusses values of and major guides to government publications: federal, state, and local.

the dramatic dialogue or musical background of a sound film? Or would students gain a better understanding of this content from still pictures accompanied by the teacher's spoken explanation?

A third step is to determine whether the material is accurate, up-to-date, and free from advertising. Just as reading materials must be factually accurate, give a correct general impression, be free of stereotypes, and include current data, so must audio-visual materials—unless slanted materials are deliberately used as a basis for exercises in critical thinking. In the latter case, the teacher must take care that materials presenting various points of view are studied. The question of whether or not there is objectionable advertising is especially pertinent in selecting audio-visual materials, since many of those available to schools at low cost are produced by industrial companies with a product or a point of view to sell.

The last step is to decide whether the piece of audio-visual material being considered is appropriate to the maturity level of the class. Is the vocabulary suitable? Is the form of presentation, as in a graph or map or chart, one that students can understand? Are the situations or the facts that are presented suited to the maturity of the pupils? Is the level of treatment one that pupils of this age can be interested in?

In addition to these general considerations, the teacher should apply to material of a particular type the more specific criteria that are given later in this chapter when each kind of audio-visual material is discussed.

TEACHING WITH AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Basic principles of teaching and learning which apply to the use of other educational materials apply also to the handling of audio-visual materials. There must be preplanning, motivation of students, effective presentation, discussion of the material in relationship to other sources of information, and follow-up application activities.

Preplanning involves choosing the most appropriate material for accomplishing the purpose at hand and planning for its use in class. In selecting the film, filmstrip, or other material, the teacher decides whether he will use it to introduce a topic, for direct teaching of information, or as a summarizing device. In planning the actual presentation, he will note difficult terms and decide how to clarify them in advance. He will check for any distracting features, such as unusual costumes or customs, about which stu-

dents need advance warning in order not to have their attention diverted from the main points. He will decide what supplementary information to give students, either before, during, or after the presentation. If a film lacks a map to locate events, for example, he may provide one. He will formulate questions to guide pupils in their study of the material. Sometimes the students will be involved in the preplanning process. A committee may study alternative films, pictures, or charts and decide which would be most effective in the class's study. The committee members may bring in the needed supplementary material, and prepare to lead in the follow-up discussion and other activities.

Before presenting the material for class study, the teacher must stimulate students' interest in it, and be sure they know both why they are studying it and what to look for as it is presented. In this step, the teacher must create a classroom atmosphere in which students look on the audio-visual material as a study resource, not an entertainment feature. If students have shared in the preplanning, they can help set the stage for the presentation. One device the teacher can use is to give a limited number of "study questions," perhaps three or four, similar to those that might be provided for a reading assignment. For example, in a United States history unit on "Establishing the New Government Under the Constitution," the film "Launching the New Government, 1789-1800" (Coronet, 1¼ reels) may be shown. The students may be asked to look for answers to these questions:

1. What were the major problems of the new government, according to the makers of this film?
2. How was each of the problems met?
3. How does the film account of the conflicting views of Hamilton and Jefferson compare with accounts that you have read?

For best results, audio-visual material must be presented under optimum conditions. Projectors or other equipment should be checked in advance, to insure proper operation. If there is a choice, projected materials should be shown in the classroom rather than in a special viewing room. The classroom showing enables the teacher to present the material at the most useful time, without the interruption for moving the class. Also, it is usually easier to maintain a study atmosphere in the classroom than to recreate it after students have moved to the special room.

The presentation should be timed to allow for discussion of the material, before the end of the class period if at all possible. Silent material, such as filmstrips, still pictures, or cartoons, should be

discussed as the class examines it. The teacher can pause during a filmstrip showing, for example, to add information or ask questions that will help students interpret the picture or chart that is on the screen at the moment. Sound films, tapes, or broadcasts, on the other hand, must be discussed afterwards. Data presented in the audio-visual material should be related to those gathered from other sources, not discussed in isolation.

The teacher can take advantage of the interest aroused by audio-visual materials to plan other activities with pupils. For example, they may check on the authenticity of the material by comparing it with other sources, or they may investigate the group which produced it. When a filmstrip is old, students may investigate recent developments. If a film presents no proposed solutions to the problem it identifies, students may list alternative courses of action and study each one more thoroughly. As a result of studying some particularly effective and timely material, they may plan to publicize the problem or topic through a school assembly or an exhibit in the community. The range of possible follow-up activities is as great as the imagination and energy of the teacher and his students.

TYPES OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Each type of audio-visual material has its special uses and its limitations. As suggested above, the teacher must select material for use in terms of these factors as well as in terms of the more general criteria which apply to all audio-visual materials.

MOTION PICTURES. A carefully selected sound motion picture probably has a greater impact upon students than any other audio-visual material. Many superior sound films are available for most social studies courses.

Films should be used when motion is needed to tell a story or show a process. The sound film lends itself well to presenting momentous occurrences or dramatizing past events and present-day problems. When pupils see an effective documentary film or a full-length feature film, they are likely to identify with some of the characters and relive the events being portrayed. A film can show an entire process which pupils cannot see on a single field trip because it takes too long or is carried out in too many different places. A film, for example, can trace the manufacture of an automobile from the production of the raw material to the moment that the finished car is driven off the assembly line. Films enable pupils to see distant places which most classes cannot visit in person.

dents need advance warning in order not to have their attention diverted from the main points. He will decide what supplementary information to give students, either before, during, or after the presentation. If a film lacks a map to locate events, for example, he may provide one. He will formulate questions to guide pupils in their study of the material. Sometimes the students will be involved in the preplanning process. A committee may study alternative films, pictures, or charts and decide which would be most effective in the class's study. The committee members may bring in the needed supplementary material, and prepare to lead in the follow-up discussion and other activities.

Before presenting the material for class study, the teacher must stimulate students' interest in it, and be sure they know both why they are studying it and what to look for as it is presented. In this step, the teacher must create a classroom atmosphere in which students look on the audio-visual material as a study resource, not an entertainment feature. If students have shared in the preplanning, they can help set the stage for the presentation. One device the teacher can use is to give a limited number of "study questions," perhaps three or four, similar to those that might be provided for a reading assignment. For example, in a United States history unit on "Establishing the New Government Under the Constitution," the film "Launching the New Government, 1789-1800" (Coronet, 1¼ reels) may be shown. The students may be asked to look for answers to these questions:

1. What were the major problems of the new government, according to the makers of this film?
2. How was each of the problems met?
3. How does the film account of the conflicting views of Hamilton and Jefferson compare with accounts that you have read?

For best results, audio-visual material must be presented under optimum conditions. Projectors or other equipment should be checked in advance, to insure proper operation. If there is a choice, projected materials should be shown in the classroom rather than in a special viewing room. The classroom showing enables the teacher to present the material at the most useful time, without the interruption for moving the class. Also, it is usually easier to maintain a study atmosphere in the classroom than to recreate it after students have moved to the special room.

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The use of films also enables the teacher to control the time and place of viewing, and focus student attention on the important points to be studied.

The hundreds of films available for social studies classes vary greatly in quality. It is far better to use a few good films than many ineffectual ones. In selecting films the teacher, in addition to considering the general questions given on page 332, will wish to apply the following criteria:

1. Is the quality of sound and photography technically adequate?
2. Is the treatment thorough, or does the film cover so much ground that it does nothing well?
3. Is the content presented in a well-organized fashion?
4. Does the film use appropriate techniques that will attract and hold student attention? (such as the use of humor, human interest, and a story approach; natural acting; the use of dialogue or dialogue combined with narration; effective background music).
5. Can the film be obtained for showing at the time it fits best into class plans?

STILL PICTURES. For certain purposes, still pictures have advantages over films. Pictures can be studied as long as desired to grasp all of the details. A color photograph of a medieval tapestry, for example, will do far more to help students understand the skill of its makers than will a brief movie shot. Slides and filmstrips utilize still pictures and other graphics in a projected form. The same methods of instruction and criteria for selection apply, whether the still picture is projected or not. Projection of slides and other still pictures for study by the entire class group is discussed later in this chapter.

Students must be taught how to interpret pictures. They should learn to look for clues about conditions or factors that may not be overtly represented. When examining landscapes, for example, the climatic zone of a region or the season of the year may be indicated by clothing people are wearing, by dwellings, or by the type of vegetation. Farm implements or other man-made objects suggest the level of technology in the area. As students look at pictures, they should try to visualize actual sizes, estimate distances, and imagine sounds. They should learn to compare pictures of similar or related subjects, and draw generalizations. For example, in studying a set of pictures showing farming in different regions, they should note differences and similarities in crops, farm animals, land use, and tools, and formulate generalizations concerning the effect of regional differences on agriculture.

When the teacher is using a group of pictures, they should be arranged in the sequence best suited to achieve a particular purpose. For example, pictures of events in a political campaign or steps in the manufacture of textiles should be shown in order of occurrence if the purpose is to give a picture of what happened. A teacher who has taken photographs during a trip into the southern part of the United States may present a series of pictures or slides to illustrate changes in the physical and cultural landscape from the border states to the Gulf of Mexico. If he wishes to compare the large plantation with other types of land use in the South, he may use many of the same pictures but arrange them in a different sequence.

Still pictures may be used for both individual and class study. They can be placed in folders on a table or posted on a bulletin board to be examined during study periods. To focus attention upon certain aspects of the pictures, the teacher can affix questions to the back of picture mountings or post them beside the pictures. He can also prepare exercises in picture interpretation based on textbook illustrations, and administer them to individuals or to the entire class group. Some pictures, if shown to the entire class, can stimulate discussion. Those large enough to be seen from all parts of the room may be posted on the bulletin board, while small ones should be projected. If no projector is available, passing a series of small pictures around the class for individual examination may be useful, but only when time is allowed for pupils to study them, when students know what to look for in the pictures, and when there is a follow-up discussion of the pictures. Trying to continue a discussion while the pictures are passing around is usually a waste of time, for pupils can neither follow the discussion nor give adequate attention to the pictures.

Pupils may use slides for individual study if a slide-viewer is included in the classroom equipment. While working on a particular project, a committee may wish to examine slides relating to it. Later they can project the best ones during their report to the class. Individual viewing is also useful for review or remedial work. When a teacher has shown slides of landscape features in the region under consideration, for example, he can keep the slides on a corner table. If a pupil shows that he does not remember important facts or has gained a wrong impression, he can be referred to particular slides for more careful study.

A second type of viewer, the stereoscope, permits pupils to look at three-dimensional pictures. Inexpensive viewers, obtainable at most camera and drug stores, have a variety of circular

cards, each containing slides on one topic. Some of these cards can be used to illustrate concepts that are developed in social studies classes. More expensive viewers are available for three-dimensional slides which can be made by the teacher with a special stereoscopic camera or an attachment for his miniature camera.

The social studies teacher who wishes to use still pictures effectively must select them carefully on the basis of such general criteria as accuracy and pertinence; he should also apply the more specific ones suggested in the following questions. Students will learn much more from a few pertinent pictures that are studied and discussed than from exposure to a large number that do not meet these criteria.

Is the picture clear, with composition, perspective, and coloring combining to emphasize the main idea? (A picture that shows too much may be confusing, while one that fails to show the setting for the action or object that is pictured may be misleading or, at best, leave an incomplete impression.)

Does the picture show a process, a condition, a significant product, or a relationship? (A picture of a customs house is less useful than one showing customs officials inspecting incoming goods.)

Does the picture include some object of known size, so that students can understand the dimensions of unfamiliar features in the picture? (Students will be helped to comprehend the size of the Sphinx, for example, if the picture includes a person standing at its base.)

Does the picture stimulate interest? (Does the arrested action that is shown tell a story or show a relationship among people or between man and his environment? If the picture is of an object, is the subject a significant one for the pupil, and is it vividly portrayed?)

CARTOONS. Cartoons are used widely to sway opinion during political controversies. Social studies teachers can use them to arouse interest, illustrate points of view, and teach pupils to read them critically.

Although students in junior and senior high school are usually interested in political cartoons, they frequently fail to understand them. Such common symbols as the following should be explained and discussed: the Republican elephant and the Democratic donkey; Uncle Sam, Columbia, John Bull, the British lion, the Russian bear, and the Communist hammer and sickle; John Q. Public, the cigar-loving big business man, the olive branch of peace, Mars the god of war, and the robed figure of Death carrying a scythe. Pupils need to learn to recognize leading personalities from their carica-

tures. The teacher can cut symbols and typical caricatures out of cartoons and use them as a basis for class study and discussion of cartooning symbols.

Besides being able to interpret symbols, and so get clues to the views expressed in cartoons, students must learn to examine cartoons critically for persuasion techniques such as card-stacking or the "home folks" approach. He must learn to ask what important points in the situation are ignored, and whether the artist is presenting a fair picture of the point of view of a particular group. Students may prepare a bulletin board display in which they post daily cartoons and any accompanying editorial from a local newspaper. After studying this record for several weeks, the class can generalize about the relationship between cartoons and the editorial policy of the paper. During a debate on a current issue, students may study cartoons from newspapers which represent different viewpoints. From time to time, the teacher should use multiple-choice items based on a specific cartoon to test the ability of pupils to identify the key idea, the meaning of symbols, and the type of persuasion device employed.

Students find it interesting to draw cartoons (stick figures may be used) to illustrate their own opinion or opposing points of view on some current or historic issue—a tariff measure which is before Congress, or the nullification controversy of the early nineteenth century. Drawing effective cartoons requires reading and planning, more than artistic ability.

GRAPHS, CHARTS, AND DIAGRAMS. Graphs in their various forms are especially useful for presenting and comparing approximate quantitative data. The simple line graph shows trends or changes. Bar graphs compare different items or changes in one item, such as the production of petroleum over a period of years. The well-designed pictograph is merely an interesting form of bar graph. The circle or pie graph also shows fractions or percentages of the whole and is especially appropriate for presenting financial information such as the division of the tax dollar for federal expenditures. Students are familiar with most of these forms of graphs when they enter the junior high school, but they need review and further instruction in reading and making them.

More complicated to read are the multiple-line graph and the 100 per cent bar graph. The multiple-line graph compares trends or changes in several factors. The 100 per cent bar graph uses a single bar to represent 100 per cent of something such as world production of steel. It is divided into parts which show percentages

of the whole, as the proportion of the world's steel manufactured in different countries. Secondary school students must be taught to read these more advanced graphs.

Charts are useful to show organization and processes, to demonstrate changes that have occurred, or to present statistical data. Lines of responsibility or power can be shown graphically on organizational charts. Flow charts can be used to show steps in a process, such as those by which a raw material is turned into the final product. Illustrated time lines, a form of chart, can show changes over a period of time, as in transportation. A statistical chart can present specific illustrative data for pupils to study.

Diagrams are simplified drawings which clarify a relationship or a process. For example, the teacher can diagram the pump-priming theory, the division of powers between federal and state governments, or the financial transactions involved in international trade.

Reading graphs, charts, and diagrams is a skill to be taught and learned. The teacher should remind students to note the title, and read any explanatory features—caption, key, scale, or footnote—before studying the chart or diagram itself. The first examination of the chart or diagram should focus on big relationships; later it can be studied for details. These steps in reading graphs, charts, and diagrams can be emphasized in class exercises, both oral and written, based on graphic materials in a textbook or classroom newspapers that the class is using. Examples of suitable items for such exercises are given in Morse, McCune (see Selected Readings for Chapter 16).

The teacher can use the following criteria (in addition to the general standards given on p. 332) as a basis for selecting graphs, charts, and diagrams for instructional use, and for evaluating student-made graphic materials. Students, too, should learn to apply these criteria in making a critical evaluation of graphics they study or prepare.

Does the title explain clearly what the graphic is about?

Is there a clarifying caption, key, or scale? Is one needed?

Do graphs show the scale clearly? Does it start at zero, so that comparisons or changes are seen in correct perspective?

If a graph shows comparisons over a period of years, was the base year a normal year?

Are the source and date of the data given?

Are major relationships made to stand out on a chart or a diagram, without confusing detail that distracts attention from the main point?

PROJECTED MATERIALS. Projection of a picture, map, or other graphic makes it possible for the entire class to study it at the same time and discuss it. The bright image in a darkened room is dramatic and focuses attention upon the object presented. Materials for projection have the additional advantages of being relatively inexpensive, easy to obtain or make, and more convenient to store than wall charts, maps, or large pictures.

Projected materials have limitations, however. Projection is not a suitable medium for presenting materials which should be available for repeated study and reference, although slides and pictures can be examined by individuals after they have been projected. Most types of projected materials require that the room be darkened, and many classrooms are not equipped for this. Many classrooms which have dark shades do not have facilities for ventilation when the shades are drawn, so that extended use of projected materials is difficult, especially in warm weather. If only one or two slides or pictures are needed for the lesson, a teacher may feel that they are not worth the bother of darkening the room or moving the class to a special projection room. There is a temptation to use all the projected materials at one time rather than at appropriate points in a lesson so as to avoid turning lights on and off.

The chief advantages and disadvantages of the most commonly used projected materials and projectors are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Opaque Projector. Non-transparent materials—pictures, postcards, cartoons, maps, and newspaper clippings—can be projected with this instrument. The teacher can show pages in a book or magazine, or student work, such as note cards or sections of a research paper. Thus the opaque projector uses inexpensive materials that are readily available. It can also be used to enlarge a map or a chart quickly and accurately. The image can be thrown on the chalkboard or a large sheet of paper, and outlines traced. This instrument has the disadvantages of being heavy to move and requiring a completely darkened room.

Slides. Slides, like still pictures, have the advantage that they can be arranged in any desired sequence. Slide projection can be effective in a partially darkened room.

Two sizes of slide projectors and slides are available, the standard $3\frac{1}{4}" \times 4"$ and the $2" \times 2"$. Standard-sized slides on many social studies subjects are available from libraries and commercial sources. Also available in this size are a variety of slide surfaces that teachers and students can use to construct their own slides—drawings, maps, typed materials. The smaller $2" \times 2"$ slides have the ad-

vantage of providing excellent color reproduction and being relatively inexpensive to make. Anyone who has access to an inexpensive miniature camera can make them. Thus a teacher can plan and build his own collection of slides, often with the assistance of students. He can use his camera to copy pictures and maps that are available for this treatment under copyright laws.

Filmstrips. The filmstrip, which is shown with a filmstrip projector, provides a set sequence of still pictures, titles, charts, or other graphics focused on a given topic. If the pictures and graphics are well selected and well organized, the filmstrip may be easier to use and as effective as a sequence of slides. Filmstrip material is less expensive, per single shot, than slides. Filmstrips are easier to store than slides. Like slides, they can be projected in a partially darkened room. An effective filmstrip will tell its story largely through pictures, with such occasional charts or diagrams as are appropriate, rather than through printed captions or an accompanying script to be read.

Overhead Transparency Projector. This projector, which has come into common use within recent years, can be used to project any material that has been put on sheets of cellophane or acetate or on sheets of a specially prepared black carbon. The teacher—or students—may write, draw, or type material, or use a simple process to copy a picture or printed material that is not subject to copyright. Instructions for preparing materials for use with the overhead transparency projector will be found in Kinder and in Frye and McMahon (see Selected Readings).

The overhead transparency projector lends itself to flexible classroom procedures. The room need not be darkened for the use of this instrument, so it can be used at intervals through the class period with a minimum of bother. The projector is placed at the front of the room and projects the image on a raised screen behind the operator. The teacher, while operating the machine, can note pupil reactions to the projected material and stop for explanation or discussion as needed. He can point to a particular thing on the transparency, and his pointer will show on the projected image. He can draw on a transparency with a grease pencil and the lines will appear on the screen as he makes them. Later, these marks can be wiped off, leaving the transparency ready for future use.

One of the most useful kinds of material that can be used with the overhead transparency projector is the overlay. This consists of a series of transparencies, ordinarily of different colors, which can be placed on top of each other for projection. Each is bound to the edge of the basic transparency with tape. Overlays permit

the teacher to show students a simple map or diagram, gradually adding more complex features. For example, the basic transparency of an overlay on South America may show an outline map in black. A second transparency shows elevation, a third rainfall, a fourth isotherms, and a fifth basic resources and lines of transportation.

THE CHALKBOARD. The chalkboard is one of the least expensive but most useful visual materials. The teacher uses it to list questions, write unfamiliar names and terms, cite figures, stress a date or show chronology, make lists, draw diagrams or maps, or summarize points. He can use it to teach certain skills. For example, he may demonstrate outlining or present a sample of correct bibliographical form for use in a report. If no duplicating process is available, he can place exercises or tests on the board and hide them from sight with maps, curtains, or strips of wrapping paper fastened to the board with masking tape until time for use. A teacher cannot depend upon spur-of-the-moment ideas for using the chalkboard and use it effectively. By thinking through his lesson plans, he can design diagrams, charts, and examples to clarify points. Complicated drawings should be made before the class meets.

EXHIBITS AND DISPLAYS. Specimens, models, dioramas, pictures, cartoons, charts, maps, and examples of student work—these are only some of the materials that can be used for effective exhibits and displays in social studies classrooms. Exhibits may be prepared by the teacher to stimulate student interest in a topic or to provide information about it. Or they may be arranged by students as a report on research or as a summary at the end of a unit. Exhibits and displays can take many forms—a bulletin board presentation, a series of mounted pictures and graphics set in the chalk tray or hung from the map rail, a showcase presentation, or a combination of these.

Regardless of the form used or the authorship, the following basic principles should be applied in developing an exhibit or display:

1. The display should develop a single important idea.
2. It should attract attention through the use of such devices as short, interesting captions and contrasting colors; where possible such refinements as a spot light or a revolving turntable to display an object will add to the interest of the display.
3. It should be well-organized and uncluttered, with a layout that draws attention to the center of interest.
4. It should be kept up for a short time, then replaced with another of equal interest.

5. It should be tied into the current work of the class; students should have opportunity to discuss and examine it, and the unit test may properly include an item or items based on it.

Some examples of successful exhibits and displays will demonstrate the uses to be made of this kind of audio-visual material:

What is a mountain? This exhibit was composed of a physical map of the United States posted on the bulletin board and surrounded by pictures of the various mountain regions. A ribbon ran from each picture to the corresponding mountain area. On a table set below the bulletin board stood a student-made terrain model of a mountain area, and a Viewmaster with a set of slides of mountain scenes.

How Well Can You Use the Card Catalogue? This display consisted of a greatly enlarged catalog card posted on the bulletin board that could be read from any part of the room. The card reproduced the title card for a book that related to the current unit of work. Colored yarn was stretched from each item on the card to explanatory notes posted around the giant card. The whole was mounted on a background of bright-colored construction paper. Over a period of several days the display was changed to present a subject card and then an author card.

It Happened This Week. This display was a permanent, but ever changing current events bulletin board featuring pictures and associated headlines clipped from newspapers, with cartoons and editorials from time to time.

Our Early Ancestors. This exhibit combined a bulletin board and showcase display and featured pictures, drawings, models, and realia such as arrowheads and fist-hatchets, prepared by a class studying primitive man.

Other examples of successful displays and exhibits are described in Dale and in Grubola, cited in Selected Readings.

RADIO, TELEVISION, AND RECORDINGS. Radio and television programs provide opportunities for students to hear and see historical dramas, listen to experts on social studies topics and to debates on public issues, and, in general, keep up with current affairs and interpretations of events. Nevertheless, radio and television have several disadvantages for class use. Programs cannot be stopped when pupils are puzzled nor presented a second time if they wish to check what they heard. The teacher cannot preview a program to see that it is suitable, nor can he do so careful a job of planning a lesson as for a film or recording. The biggest problem concerns scheduling, because many of the most valuable programs are presented out of school hours. They can be used by social studies

classes, however, if the teacher calls attention to them. By discussing them in class, teachers can encourage more widespread student use of worthwhile programs. Enthusiasm of a few pupils for specific programs is usually contagious.

Recordings overcome many disadvantages of radio in the classroom without losing much but the sense of immediacy underlying broadcasts of events as they occur. Unlike radio programs, recordings can be used many times and whenever desired. The teacher can listen to them ahead of time, making plans for classroom use. When students are perplexed by something, the teacher can stop the recording or replay it.

There are both disk and tape recordings of music of different eras and countries, historical speeches, and historical dramatizations. In addition to consulting the catalogues of commercial record companies, the teacher should inquire about any "Tapes for Teaching" service that may be maintained by universities or the department of education in his state. Teachers can also tape their own recordings of radio and television broadcasts. Those of lasting value can be saved; others can be erased and the tapes used again.

To use radio, television, or recordings effectively in teaching social studies, the teacher will apply the same basic principles of instruction that he follows in using other instructional materials. The major broadcasting networks publish manuals or guides for some of their educational programs, and similar guides are available for many commercial recordings. The teacher can obtain these materials and use them as an aid in his planning.

PROCEDURES FOR OBTAINING MATERIALS

Each school has its own procedures for renting or purchasing audio-visual materials, and in larger systems an audio-visual specialist does much of the routine work that is involved. The teacher's first step should be to learn these procedures, and discover what materials may be owned by or readily available to the school. He should also learn where he can consult catalogues and guides to audio-visual materials. The most widely used guides to educational films and filmstrips are listed in the Selected Readings.

Many school libraries maintain a picture file, from which the teacher can obtain still pictures on various topics. In larger schools the social studies department is likely to have its own file of pictures, clippings, slides, and filmstrips. To supplement these sources, the teacher should build his own file of audio-visual materials, not neglecting superior examples of student work.

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The teacher can learn what new audio-visual materials are being produced by following *Social Education's* regular department, "Sight and Sound in the Social Studies." Here he will find reviews of new films, filmstrips, and recordings and announcements of a wide variety of posters, charts, and other materials. From time to time, this department also gives a selected list of audio-visual materials on a specific topic.

A great wealth and variety of audio-visual materials are available. The social studies teacher's job is to select and use them for effective instruction.

SELECTED READINGS

GUIDES TO AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS

Educational Film Guide and *Filmstrip Guide*. New York: H. W. Wilson.

Comprehensive subject and title catalogs of current films and filmstrips. Each listing includes brief descriptions and evaluations and indicates appropriate grade levels. The basic catalogs, revised every few years, are supplemented by frequent listings and annual cumulative editions.

Educator's Guide to Free Films and *Educator's Guide to Free Slidefilms*. Randolph, Wisc.: Educators Progress Service.

Films and filmstrips are arranged by school subject areas. Brief annotations. Guides are revised annually.

ARTICLES

ALLEN, WILLIAM H. "Audio-Visual Communication," in Chester W. Harris (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3d ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. Pp. 115-37.

An excellent summary of research findings on the values and methods of using audio-visual materials.

FLANDERS, MARK J. "Two-by-Two Slides—and How!" *Educational Screen*, 25 (September, 1946), 362-64, 384.

Illustrated directions on how to build a stand for making copies of pictures and maps with a miniature camera.

FRYE, HARVEY, and McMAHON, EDWARD. "Transparencies from the Printed Page," *Educational Screen*, 34 (February, 1955), 68-69.

Describes the process of making transparencies for slides or the overhead projector by transferring pictures from a magazine page to acetate.

MERIDETH, DOROTHY. "Some Suggested Uses for Classroom Films," *School Review*, 55 (December, 1947), 587-93.

Describes examples of the use of films for the following purposes: identifying major points; drawing comparisons, generalizations, and conclusions; combatting the habit of stereotyped thinking; analyzing cause-effect relationships; and identifying and analyzing propaganda devices.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

DALE, EDGAR. *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching*, rev. ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1954.

An excellent explanation of why and how to use audio-visual materials. The chapters on preparing exhibits, using motion pictures, and teaching with still pictures are particularly useful.

GRUBOLA, MARION R. *How to Use a Bulletin Board*, How to Do It Series, No. 4, rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1960. Pp. 8.

Suggests many different types of displays and includes nearly two pages of sources of materials such as pictures and charts.

KINDER, JAMES S. *Audio-Visual Materials and Techniques*, rev. ed. New York: American Book Co., 1959.

A clear handbook for the use of audio-visual materials. Contains a helpful discussion of the overhead projector, and includes a valuable list of sources of materials.

SANDS, LESTER B. *Audio-Visual Procedures in Teaching*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1956.

Describes each type of visual aid in a separate chapter, with a full analysis of its uses, possibilities, and limitations. Includes an extensive list of source materials.

WITTICH, WALTER ARNO, and SCHULLER, CHARLES FRANCIS. *Audio-Visual Materials, Their Nature and Use*, rev. ed. New York: Harper & Bros., 1957.

Includes practical suggestions on the use of the chalkboard, graphics, displays, recordings, still projection, and motion pictures.

COMMUNITY RESOURCES

Community resources include aspects of the community which can be studied directly, and those which give help in studying topics not related to the community itself. In the first category, pupils can study geographic features, the make-up of the population, and the political, social, and economic institutions of the local area. They can also investigate the history of the community. In the second category pupils can learn from people in the community about life in other countries, and from a museum, about other lands and ages. A labor union may have materials describing the national organization or presenting a point of view concerning federal labor legislation. A local manufacturer may have pamphlets giving management's view of the same legislation, or describing industrial processes that pupils are studying.

Using community resources involves taking students into the community and bringing the community into the classroom. Students may go on field trips or interviews, conduct community surveys, or participate in community action programs. On the other hand, the community can be brought to the students by means of guest speakers, exhibits, recorded or filmed materials, or written records.

VALUES OF USING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

The use of community resources adds realism and vitality to the social studies program. Although study of the locality and the state could lead to provincial attitudes, handled intelligently it helps pupils understand society at large and enables them to become better citizens of their locality, state, and nation. The community is more than a geographic area. It is also a society which illustrates

the interdependence of world cultures and the persistent problems of mankind, past and present. Studying the problems of local government, for example, can throw light upon governmental problems of peoples of many lands and many ages.

Direct experiences in the community can help students understand concepts they encounter in their social studies work, and stimulate their interest in social studies topics. A visit to a factory that has an assembly line or has installed automated machinery can clarify the concept of mass production, demonstrate the tremendous productiveness made possible by modern technology, and arouse interest in certain labor-management problems. A visit to a museum to examine realia and exhibits related to the local region can clarify impressions and create a sense of reality concerning past conditions and events.

Using community resources can strengthen constructive social attitudes of the student. A reasoned patriotism and pride in his national origins can be cultivated through first-hand study of local history. Direct observation of effects of social problems on the lives of people can help create a sensitivity for human welfare. Participating in a project to improve his own neighborhood or community can help the student develop lasting attitudes favorable to civic improvement. He can gain a sense of personal involvement that can hardly be developed through academic study alone. Also, as he sees the potential of cooperative action, he will lose the all-too-prevalent feeling that existing conditions are inevitable and that it is hopeless to try to improve them.

Appropriate use of community resources can result in improved public relations for the school. Townspeople are usually glad to discover that teachers and pupils are interested in them and their businesses or treasured possessions. Whether the relationships that are established will be positive or negative, of course, depends on the quality of student behavior. If students show courtesy, interest, and evidence of being well prepared when they go on field trips or interviews, citizens are likely to feel that the school is doing a good job. Rowdy, untactful, or thoughtless behavior, on the other hand, may damage the reputation of the teacher and the school, and close off avenues of community study.

RESOURCES FOR SOCIAL STUDIES SUBJECTS

The most obvious and probably the most common use of community resources is for the study of the local community itself. Many schools provide for this in one of the junior high school years.

But the full value of these resources can be gained only if they are used in all parts of the social studies program. The following pages give examples of ways in which the community can be drawn upon to illuminate the various social studies subjects.

HISTORY. In addition to providing resource material for the study of local history, community resources can be used to illustrate phases of the national history. Every community's history illustrates at least one type of frontier life, and most provide examples of several frontier stages. Material to illustrate immigration and migration within the nation is at hand in every community. Pupils can study local aspects of every major national event that has occurred since the community's founding. Resource people for such investigations include older persons who lived through the events, members of local historical societies, and other individuals interested in local history. There are also likely to be people with a special interest in selected periods or aspects of national history—the Civil War “buff,” the collector of sailing ship models and pictures, the enthusiast for colonial furnishings, or the Oregon Trail “specialist.”

Students can also locate realia or documentary materials. In many cases, items such as the following may be borrowed from individuals for exhibit and study:

Tools, utensils, and weapons of an earlier day, as garden tools, spinning wheels, butter churns, wooden ware, Indian pottery, arrowheads, knives, swords, old guns, helmets, other military equipment

Clothing and toys of an earlier period, as dresses, shoes, hats, dolls, homemade toys of pioneer days, toy kitchen equipment and furniture

Old written and printed materials, as diaries, letters, financial records, newspapers, schoolbooks, songbooks, mail-order catalogues, maps, valentines, photographs

In some cases, pupils may obtain permission to photograph or copy some of these materials for the school files. In addition to borrowing such materials from individuals, pupils can locate similar things to study in local libraries and museums.

Resources for the study of world history are also available in most communities. Libraries and museums are the most obvious sources, of course. In addition, individuals may have pictures, records, letters, and clothing and other realia that have been preserved from earlier generations in “the old country.” Those who have traveled widely, whether in military service or for other reasons, often have pertinent objects to show and experiences or impressions to relate. The community can also provide examples

of the influence of other cultures on our own, as in the origins of religions found in the area, or the sources of architectural patterns that are found in local buildings.

GEOGRAPHY. The study of geography should be firmly based on concrete experiences in the local area. Direct observations and field experiences are invaluable in developing a sense of direction and distance, an understanding of landforms and climate, a grasp of such concepts as erosion and conservation, and the ability to read maps. Many ways in which men have used and modified their environment can be illustrated in the local region—a reforestation project, for example, or a dam on a nearby river.

The community is also an invaluable source for studying many aspects of economic geography. Making land-use maps of the area helps pupils see relationships between resources, transportation facilities, and the location of certain industrial or commercial establishments. Investigation of local examples of industries that pupils are studying, such as fishing or mining or light manufacturing, can help them gain background for interpreting textbook discussions of these activities.

The same community resources that are useful for world history are often valuable in the study of world geography—people who have traveled or lived abroad, museums with their displays of realia and habitat groups, and libraries with their collections of pictures, slides, and records, as well as of books.

ECONOMICS. Community resources are valuable in studying our economic world, whether pupils are concerned with the operation of our economic system, a study of vocations and job opportunities, or problems of consumers. Most communities provide examples of almost every type of economic pattern or problem to be found in American society.

When studying factors of production, types of business organization, competition versus monopoly, or problems of distribution, pupils can turn to local industries, farms, and commercial enterprises. They may interview people such as businessmen, farmers, county agents, or railroad agents, or they can visit factories and stores to see how they are organized to achieve efficiency.

The community helps illuminate other aspects of the economy. A cost-of-living index takes on more meaning if pupils build one for their own locality, and the law of supply and demand means more if studied in relationship to local prices. Pupils can talk with bankers and industrialists about the ways in which banks affect industrial expansion and everyday business activity. As they see how a local businessman receives credit in the form of an

addition to his checking account, they gain a new concept of money. Economic problems come to life when studied in relationship to the local community. Parents, businessmen, farmers, and many others can testify about the effects of inflation and depression upon their lives. Data concerning employment in the immediate area can be secured from state agencies. Effects of low incomes can be seen in impoverished neighborhoods or through interviews with welfare workers. Students can study labor-management problems by talking with representatives of labor and management or studying contracts between a local industry and a labor union.

The study of occupations takes on more meaning if related to the community in which pupils live. When investigating different vocations to find out what the jobs are like and what qualifications are needed, pupils can interview those engaged in them. They can also discover what training opportunities there are in the local area or in the state. During a visit to an employment agency, they can ask about methods of locating jobs in the community.

Consumer education can be made more realistic by using community resources. Principles of good buying can be applied by pupils as they study local advertising and compare goods and prices in local stores. Interviews with a representative of the Better Business Bureau, a city official who inspects sanitary conditions in restaurants, and a federal food inspector at a local food processing plant help pupils understand ways in which consumers are protected by both private and public agencies. Students can learn about savings, investments, and insurance by visiting banks, listening to insurance men, talking to real estate men, or consulting a local broker.

SOCIOLOGY. To study social institutions and problems without turning to the community would be sterile indeed. The community provides specific examples of topics which must be presented in a rather abstract fashion in textbooks. Perhaps students are studying a particular social institution such as the school. Census reports provide data on the educational status of the local population. School officials can help pupils understand problems of school finance, particularly those growing out of the pressure from a rising school population. In some communities where the data were not readily available, pupils have conducted a survey of children under five to provide figures for predicting future enrollments.

The community provides case examples of social problems and agencies attempting to solve them. For example, pupils can use local crime reports to obtain information about delinquency rates. They can interview officials about the operation of the state pardon

board, costs of maintaining prisons and parole officers in the state, and causes, treatment, and prevention of delinquency.

Civics. The local community affords pupils both the opportunity of studying governmental operation through examples and a chance to participate in civic affairs. There are few government processes which cannot be studied in operation in the local community. The legislative process can be seen through visits to the town council, a session of the county board, and—in the fifty capital cities and the communities surrounding them—committee hearings or sessions of the state legislature. Pupils can supplement the textbook discussion of the work of a legislator by inviting one to talk to the class. Government administration at the local, state, and national level can be seen at work in the community. Through field trips and interviews, pupils can learn how various administrative matters are cared for by such officials as the mayor or the city manager, the town clerk, the county assessor, the state tax commissioner, or the highway commissioner. Pupils can visit representatives of federal departments and agencies such as county agents, post-office officials, internal revenue agents, and social security administrative officers. The judicial process, too, can be studied in the local community through visits to court sessions and interviews with judges, lawyers, or other officers of the court.

No better place can be found to study the political process than in the local community. Pupils can investigate the local party system by reading newspapers and party literature, interviewing party officials and party workers, visiting party headquarters, or inviting political leaders to talk to the class. The election process can be studied by following the political campaign and attending political rallies. After study of the state election laws, students can talk with registration and election officials and examine sample registration cards, ballots, and other forms used in the election. In towns using voting machines, the teacher may be able to arrange for a demonstration prior to the election.

UTILIZING COMMUNITY RESOURCES

To gain the potential values of community resources, the teacher must apply the same basic principles that he does in using other kinds of learning materials. In doing so, he must make some special arrangements and employ some special techniques.

ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS. The social studies teacher should discuss with his administrative superior—the principal or the department chairman—any extensive use of community resources

that is planned or any project that takes even one student away from school during school hours, and obtain permission to carry out the plan. For such activities as field trips, out-of-school interviews conducted by students during school hours, or guest speakers in the school, advance permission is a legal requirement. For any extensive activity that will involve the people of the community, even though conducted during out-of-school hours, advance approval is a requirement of common sense. Both the school and the teacher are protected by such consultation and agreement.

Whenever pupils leave the school for field trips or other activities in the community, there is the chance of accident and injury to students. Should this occur, the teacher is responsible and can be held liable for damages if negligence can be proven against him. Ordinarily the teacher is considered to have exercised due caution if he follows these steps:

1. Secures advance permission for the trip from the school administrator
2. In advance, obtains written permission from the parents of each pupil for participation in the trip (This permission alone is not enough to prevent a successful legal suit against the teacher, but it does indicate advance planning.)
3. Studies the place to be visited and arranges the itinerary so as to avoid dangerous areas
4. Discusses the trip with pupils who are to go, warning them of possible dangers while on the trip and setting up rules of conduct
5. Arranges for public conveyances covered by insurance if transportation is necessary; insists that pupils use this transportation rather than their own cars.
6. Obtains the help of other adults to supervise a large group
7. Gives written directions to be followed in reaching the destination
8. Insists that pupils return to school after such a trip rather than going directly home by some other means of transportation

Another kind of administrative arrangement that the teacher must make involves scheduling out-of-school activities during the school day. Field trips, interviews, and guest speakers cannot always be fitted into the regularly scheduled social studies period. Most field trips and many interviews require a longer period of time. The teacher may wish to have two or more class sections take part in a trip or hear a guest speaker. Usually students can be excused from other classes for the necessary period, but such an arrangement must be made with the school principal well in advance—in some schools, several weeks ahead. While arrangements for the excuses are the administrator's responsibility, the teacher

may find it desirable to talk informally with the other teachers whose classes are affected.

Any expense connected with the use of community resources must also be arranged for with the school administrator. Many such activities involve little or no cost, but a field trip may entail transportation charges. Many schools pay such costs from school funds, but in some communities pupils must pay for their transportation. Some classes that take extended trips raise the necessary money by such activities as paper drives, candy sales, or a school carnival. Whatever the arrangement for paying the bills, the school administrator must give advance approval.

BASIC PROCEDURES. In addition to some special techniques that are needed in particular uses of community resources, certain basic procedures are applicable to all field trips, interviews, and sessions with guest speakers. The teacher in his preliminary planning will, of course, identify the purpose of the activity. Once he has taken care of administrative arrangements, the teacher must make arrangements for the trip, interview, or guest speaker. In doing so, he will make clear what the purpose of the activity is and the kinds of questions pupils are investigating. He will indicate the size of the group and give information about the students' backgrounds. A guide, an interviewee, or a guest speaker can do a much better job of talking to pupils if he knows something of their knowledge of the topic, their age, and their general level of ability.

Shortly before the time of the appointment, the teacher or a student under the teacher's supervision will send a written reminder. A tactful way to do this is to forward any questions that students have formulated during their background study for the activity. The resource person usually welcomes such questions for they help him make a more effective presentation.

Student preparation for the activity may begin even before it is definitely scheduled. The pupils will make at least a preliminary study of the topic that is involved. In addition to reading, they may view a filmstrip, hear an oral report, study a map of the area to be visited, or learn about the background of the person who will speak or be interviewed. They will formulate the questions that are to be sent to the resource person.

As the trip or the lecture session draws near, the teacher will review with students the standards of conduct and dress that are appropriate. These would include such matters as following basic rules of courtesy and safety, avoiding noisiness on public vehicles and at the place to be visited, and wearing suitable clothing. The class may discuss such points as how to ask questions tactfully, in

order to bring out information or points of view but to avoid putting the resource person in an awkward position. Certain students may be delegated to express the group's appreciation at the end of the visit or speech.

After the trip, interview, or speech is over, it will be followed by classroom discussion and other activities. Questions formulated in preparation for the trip or speech should be discussed, to clarify what was seen or heard and to draw generalizations. An interview or a speech may be taped, and selected parts of the tape played, if needed to illustrate or emphasize certain points. Students may raise and discuss further questions that the experience has stimulated. They may need to make further study of the topic, or wish to invite another speaker representing a different point of view. The students should relate the information they have gained to material studied earlier, noting differences and similarities. If the information they have gained has lasting interest, the students may record it in a booklet for the school library.

Finally, selected students will write notes of appreciation to the people who have helped them. These notes may be criticized by the class, so that all pupils will realize the appropriateness of writing such letters and learn more about how to do it.

✓ *Procedures for Field Trips.* A field trip is a supervised excursion taken by a group of students into the community as part of their classwork. It may take place during school hours, after school, on weekends, or during vacations. Some trips may be completed within a class period, while others will take several hours or all day. The extended journey needs several days or weeks to complete. Whatever the type of trip, the purpose is to learn something of importance, not to have a holiday, and students must be made aware of this and helped to accept it.

A successful trip demands thorough preparation by the teacher. If possible, he will make an advance trip to the place to be visited to study its educational possibilities and potential hazards. He will work out the best route and schedule, including time for transportation, for observation, and for any talks or rest periods that are needed.

Pupils will need to decide in advance whether they wish to make special records of what they see and take the needed materials. They may record data on maps during a geography field trip. At a museum they may sketch parts of a display or copy inscriptions. If appropriate, a camera enthusiast may make photographs for future study.

The teacher must work out a method of keeping track of pupils. If they are to divide into groups to observe different things, each group should have a chairman or, under special circumstances, an adult supervisor. When walking to and from a destination or even when going through a plant or museum, the class can be separated into squads, each with a student or an adult in charge. The chairman of each group will be responsible for checking attendance during the trip and making sure that pupils keep together, obey safety rules, and attend to business.

Just before the trip begins, the teacher will take attendance and check with those who have not turned in parent permission forms or their transportation money. The names of absentees and of those who for one reason or another cannot go on the trip will be reported to the school office. Pupils remaining in school must be sent, with work to do, to a place previously arranged.

The extended field trip may take several forms—a historical tour, an excursion to identified points of interest, or a school exchange. In the exchange trip, students of two communities get acquainted by correspondence and each group makes a preparatory study of the other's community. Usually the two groups study some common problems, each with reference to its own community. They exchange visits, each to learn something of the other's community, with an interval of time between the trips. Suggestions for handling extended visits may be found in Olsen, *School and Community* (see Selected Readings).

Procedures for Interviews and Speakers. A student interview with a resource person is often easier to arrange and more effective than having the person speak to a large group. It is usually more convenient for the resource person to have pupils come to him and to answer their questions than to prepare a speech for delivery at the school. Also, many people who have a rich background of information do not speak with ease and students will gain more by talking with them informally. Students can ask the questions they are really interested in during the interview, whereas a guest speaker sometimes wanders from the point despite advance preparation and there is little opportunity to call him back. When the interview is held at the resource person's home or place of business, pupils learn something of his activities and interests. Students interviewing the county chairman of a political party, for example, see a party headquarters in action. Finally, through an interview each student, as an individual or a member of a small group, can in-

investigate an aspect of the topic or a point of view that is of particular interest to him.

In special preparation for interviews, the class can discuss interview techniques and make general plans. Each interview group should make specific plans and review them with the teacher. The group will have a chairman, whose job it is to speak for the group on arrival, introduce members of the group to the person being interviewed, ask permission to take notes, and ask a beginning question. When it is time to leave, he is responsible for bringing the interview to a tactful close and expressing the thanks of the group.

A guest speaker should be a person who can speak effectively to students about a topic that is important for all to hear discussed. One successful pattern for such speeches involves a presentation of perhaps 20 or 25 minutes by the guest, followed by a question-discussion period. A student may serve as chairman, meeting the speaker in the school office and guiding him to the meeting place, introducing him to the audience, moderating the question period, and thanking the guest at the end of the period.

MUSEUM RESOURCES. Many museums have space to display only part of their materials and must keep the rest in storage, changing exhibits from time to time. A teacher who knows the range of resources of the museum can sometimes arrange to have special exhibits set up for his pupils. Some museums also display traveling exhibits of special interest. The teacher can ask to have his name placed on the mailing list for announcements of such displays.

Many museums offer special educational services, such as free lectures and movies, study clubs for young people, and a library of materials related to the museum exhibits. The teacher who knows the offerings of his local museum can help young people learn to use them.

ACTION ACTIVITIES. The purposes of action activities involving the community are to help pupils to learn about significant topics that they are studying and to develop the interest, skills, and habits that are needed for civic participation—not to solve community problems. Students must understand this, or their action activities can only end in frustration and disillusionment. This is not to say that they cannot make some contribution, for they sometimes can through collecting and organizing information to be turned over to adults, or through service activities.

In some cases, students can make surveys or polls to collect information of use to adults and make it available in an effective

form. Projects such as the following may be developed in situations where they are appropriate:

A survey of traffic conditions and accidents that have occurred at a particular intersection, as a basis for official decision on requests for installation of a traffic light or an arterial stop

A survey to identify potential civil defense workers

A survey of bicycles and bicycle traffic problems, for the use of the school authorities in revising regulations about bicycles on the school grounds or for the city council in framing an ordinance concerning bicycle inspections

A poll, in a small community, to discover householders' opinions as to whether the local government should add rubbish collection to its services, even though this would require a slight increase in taxes

Surveys may also be made by students for such purposes as studying their community, gathering information of interest to their peers, following a political campaign, or learning how surveys and polls are actually conducted. For example, a class may make a land-use survey in connection with a study of city planning and zoning. Students may conduct opinion polls about political issues or specific legislative proposals that are being debated in Congress.

Conducting surveys and polls involves study and application by the students of accepted procedures, and careful supervision by the teacher. Suggestions for making surveys and polls can be found in Burkhardt and Sawyer (see Selected Readings).

Students may gain a sense of participation in political campaigns, if they:

1. Plan and carry out a get-out-the-vote campaign, with the cooperation of the political party organizations. Some schools, including those in large cities as well as small, have made this a successful and regular election-year activity for social studies classes.
2. Volunteer for work at the political party headquarters of their choice. Although they are usually assigned routine jobs, such as stuffing envelopes, they meet political leaders of the community and feel a part of an exciting project.
3. Compile and distribute non-partisan information about candidates, including brief biographies of all candidates and the voting records of those who have been holding office, if there is no other group in the community to provide this information for voters.
4. Attend political rallies as "observers," and make brief reports to their own and (if acceptable to other teachers and the school administration) to other classes.

Volunteer work for service organizations is another valuable form of action for students who are sufficiently mature to undertake and profit from it. High school students have performed such volunteer services as these, in connection with their study of civics or problems of democracy:

1. Serving as nurses' aides in hospitals
2. Assisting in supervision of play activities of children at the local playground or in a settlement house
3. Reading to partially sighted or invalided persons
4. Participating in week-end work camps, such as those sponsored by the American Friends Service Committee
5. Collecting funds for worthy causes, such as disaster relief
6. Working as messengers, etc., in the civil defense organization
7. Serving as library aide in school or public library
8. Assisting the adult leader of a boy scout, girl scout, or other activity group for children or youth

If volunteer activities are to achieve their potential value, the teacher should provide some supervision. At the least, he will make sure that volunteers report for their work regularly for the agreed-upon period of time. Reports to the class about the volunteer activities students are engaged in can throw light upon community problems and institutions, and the way people work for civic improvement. Analysis of the service experience is needed to help students get the most from it.

LOCATING AND CATALOGUING RESOURCES

One key to effective use of the community in teaching is a selected file of the available resources. Without such a file, a busy teacher may overlook a valuable local history source or forego a field trip to a court session because it would take time to discover whom to call and how to make the arrangements. The teacher new to the community is especially handicapped without such a file.

In most large systems, the central office or the curriculum bureau has a community resource catalogue that is available to teachers. In many smaller schools, individual teachers have a working file that they are usually willing to share. The social studies teacher's first step is to discover whether such listings of community resources have been made, and how to gain access to them. If no such catalogue is available, or if it can be consulted only with inconvenience, the teacher will wish to build his own file.

Perhaps the most useful kind of file is one which can be added

to and rearranged at will in a loose-leaf notebook or a card file. Each resource may be listed on a separate sheet or card and arranged according to unit topics, so that the teacher can discover quickly what resources are available for the next unit of work. Resources useful in several units may be filed in the most likely unit with cross-reference cards for the others.

Each resource card or sheet should contain data evaluating the resource and making it easy to locate and use. One form which has proven useful is given in Chart 4.

CHART 4

FORM FOR COMMUNITY RESOURCE FILE

Unit Topic _____	Resource _____
Description of Resource *	
Evaluation of Resource **	
Location of Resource	
Travel Time _____ by _____ (type of transportation)	
Travel Directions	
Expense Involved _____	
Person to Call _____	Telephone _____
Use made by School ***	

* Include data on use to be made of resource: for example, field trip to see _____, slides of _____, talk on _____, etc. Also include information about number of students who can be accommodated, length of visit, etc.

** Include both evaluation prior to use and comments on success with which it was actually used. Note limitations, warnings, and suggestions for future use.

*** Give exact record of each use, including date and description of how used.

The job of locating and cataloguing community resources is much easier if teachers and pupils cooperate. The teacher can begin by making a list of types of resources he wishes to locate and getting suggestions from colleagues and students. A check of the classified section of the telephone directory helps locate govern-

ment offices, social service agencies, business and labor organizations, and people of different occupations. Staff members at the chamber of commerce, a council of social agencies, or the public library often are helpful in getting leads to other resources. Other teachers can be invited to join in developing a file for all to use. Pupils will be glad to help if they can see how such a file will make their classes more interesting and productive.

How the community will be drawn into social studies instruction depends upon the purpose and nature of the work at hand and the maturity of the pupils. A resource file is most helpful, but it does not remove the need for teacher planning. Having determined the objectives for a unit, the teacher must decide when community resources will be more effective in achieving these goals than any other material or technique. Unless the projects which are undertaken are well planned and executed, school-community relations may be damaged, pupils may adopt negative attitudes toward their use, and further attempts to exploit local materials may suffer. The use of community resources is no panacea in social studies instruction. Used wisely, however, the community affords many opportunities for enriching the social studies program.

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ARTICLES

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Shows how students, as part of a study of corporations, form an "Investment Trust," study the financial records of different companies, invest in several shares of stock, follow stock quotations, and send a representative to stockholders' meetings.

CLEMM, JOHN. "Junior High Students Study the Housing Problem," *Social Education*, 17 (November, 1953), 315-16.

Following a thorough investigation of housing problems, student and adult speakers join to discuss problems and propose solutions.

STAHL, EDGAR. "Students-in-Industry Project," *Social Education*, 20 (November, 1956), 319-20.

Describes student study of a local industry, involving speakers from the industry, field trips, films, booklets and reports, and student participation in the plant.

WALLACE, WILLIAM SWILLING. "Let's Make Our Own Cost-of-Living Index," *Social Education*, 13 (October, 1949), 283-84.

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Describes values of surveys, selecting samples, constructing questions, conducting interviews, and interpreting results.
- FRANKEL, M. L. *How to Cooperate with Community Agencies*, How to Do It Series, No. 17. Washington, D.C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1954. Pp. 8.
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Part V

THE EVOLVING CURRICULUM

EVOLUTION OF THE CURRICULUM

The social studies curriculum as it now exists is the result of long-term development. Many of its features can be understood only in the light of the history of its evolution. Existing issues concerning the selection and organization of social studies content can be dealt with more effectively if their origins are comprehended.

EARLY DEVELOPMENTS

In the elementary and secondary schools of the English colonies, little or no attention was given to subjects such as the present-day social studies subjects. Most children did not go beyond the three R's in their schooling, and many achieved not even that degree of formal education. The curriculum of the grammar schools was preoccupied with the traditional classical subjects which were required for college entrance, so there was no place for subjects of the social studies field. In the later colonial period some of the so-called "private English schools," which were for the most part not college preparatory institutions, advertised history and geography among the subjects that older students might take. Geography, however, was taught chiefly in connection with navigation and consisted for the most part of study of maps and globes and of land and water forms. As presented, it emphasized physical science rather than social science content. The academy which Franklin helped to found in Philadelphia in the 1750's, in an effort to popularize advanced education, included history in the curriculum of its English school. Such history as was taught was "universal history," with attention to Greek and Roman antiquities and chronology. Franklin's plan for the Philadelphia Academy, however, called for considerable attention to customs, morals, and

other aspects of earlier times that today would be classified as social or economic history.

FROM INDEPENDENCE TO THE CIVIL WAR. Soon after the end of the Revolutionary War textbooks in geography and reading were published for use in the schools. A considerable amount of historical material was included in such books. In Jedidiah Morse's *Elements of Geography*, for example, there was some discussion of the history of each country that was treated. Noah Webster's *An American Selection of Lessons in Reading and Speaking*, widely used in the schools of the early national period, included in the edition of 1788 a treatment of the United States since the Revolutionary War. In later editions the space devoted to selections pertaining to the history of the English colonies, their struggle for independence, and the establishment of the new nation was expanded until it occupied over half of the book. The first textbook in United States history was published in 1787. Much of the historical material included in it was taken directly from Webster's *American Selection*. By 1815 at least six textbooks in United States history had been published, most of them having appeared in several editions by that date. The generations that were building a new nation did not overlook the need for instructing future citizens in the history and traditions of their country.

Civics or civil government topics were woven into some of the historical materials, especially topics relating to the Constitution. Partisan politics was soon reflected in the materials prepared for the schools. As early as 1797 a volume intended to spread Federalist ideas of government was published under the title, *A Plain Political Catechism Intended for Use in the United States of America, Wherein the Great Principles of Liberty and of the Federal Constitution Are Laid Down and Explained by Way of Question and Answer, Made Level to the Lowest Capacities*. How widely it was used is not known, but its publication suggests that civics materials were considered appropriate for use in the schools.

By the 1830's geography and history and, to a lesser extent, civil government were taught as subjects in a number of schools and academies. The publication of textbooks in numerous editions provides evidence that a market for them existed in the schools. Other facts summarized in Tryon's volume in the report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association lead to the same conclusion (see Selected Readings).

Between 1830 and 1860 the number of textbooks for these three subjects increased, as did the reported numbers of schools and academies teaching them. Tryon reports that by 1860 at least

360 different history textbooks had been published in 815 editions. General history led in number, with 114, but United States history was close behind with 107. Other fields of history for which school textbooks were prepared included ancient history (78 textbooks) and English history (28 texts). By 1860 at least 45 textbooks on "Constitution, government, and law" had been published for school use. In 1827 Massachusetts and Vermont required by law that the schools in the larger towns should teach United States history, and by 1860 New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Virginia had similar laws. In 1857 Massachusetts enacted a law requiring the high schools of the larger towns to offer a course in "civil polity." Official school reports of the State of New York showed that in the later years of this period an increasing number of schools and academies in this state taught the history and Constitution of the United States, as well as general history and geography. Thus, by the time of the Civil War, history, civics, and geography had gained wide but not universal acceptance as school subjects.

LATER NINETEENTH CENTURY. By the end of the nineteenth century, history and civics had been firmly established in the curriculum of the upper elementary and the secondary schools, and were moving downward into the lower elementary grades. Not all children studied these subjects, however. Tryon concludes from his study of the school reports available for the period that ". . . the generation responsible for the 'gay nineties' knew very, very little about the 'fabulous forties'." Nevertheless, United States Bureau of Education reports show that in 1895-96 more than 70 per cent of the 432 colleges and universities included United States history in their entrance requirements. General history, Greek history, Roman history and civil government were each required by more than one-fourth of them. Geography was taught in most elementary schools, and in many of the secondary level.

The time devoted to each of the subjects later to be included in the social studies field varied from school to school, however, as did the content presented. The choice of a textbook usually determined what was taught, and no generally accepted course of study existed. The formation of widely recognized patterns for the social studies curriculum came around the turn of the century, with the "era of national committees."

EARLY STATEMENTS OF OBJECTIVES. From the early days of the republic, those who urged the inclusion of social studies subjects in the school curriculum were ready with arguments as to the objectives to be achieved through the study of these subjects. Many of the values set forth during the nineteenth century for the teach-

ing of history and civics have continued to be reflected in statements of objectives for the social studies. Study of these subjects was expected to improve citizenship, develop patriotism, and supply the knowledge of civic affairs needed for participation in governmental activities. In addition, pupils were expected to develop higher moral standards and learn to make use of leisure through the study of history.

Civics and history were also defended during much of the nineteenth century as means of strengthening and disciplining the mind. This claim, no longer accepted, arose from the mental discipline theory of psychology that was so widely held during the period. It contributed to the emphasis on rote memorization of names, dates, and other factual information that characterized the teaching of history and civics during that period, with unfortunate results on student interest and attitude that have persisted even to the present day.

Conspicuously absent or underemphasized in nineteenth-century discussions of values of history and civics were several objectives that are considered basic for social studies instruction today. Study of the past and of today's society as a means of understanding present conditions, and of evaluating proposed solutions to current problems, has emerged as a major purpose of the social studies in twentieth-century schools. Developing the skills, abilities, and habits of critical thinking, including the use of the historical method, is now prominent in most statements of values claimed for the social studies. The goal of developing ethical character through social studies instruction has come to include the building of socially desirable attitudes such as tolerance, international-mindedness, and desire to contribute to the common good of humanity.

ERA OF NATIONAL COMMITTEES

With the general acceptance of the high school as a part of the public school system and its expansion in the first two decades of the twentieth century, there came an increased emphasis on social studies subjects. Social, economic, and political factors in the nation's development during the late nineteenth and the early twentieth century laid a basis for this new emphasis. Rapid urbanization, mass immigration, and accelerated industrialization were accompanied by intensification of such socio-civic problems as political corruption, poverty, and crime. If history, civics, and related subjects could achieve the values claimed for them, there was hope for the solution of such problems. At the same time, impetus for

expanding and strengthening the teaching of social studies subjects came from organized groups of educators and scholars. A series of committees, set up by national organizations of teachers and social scientists, exerted tremendous influence on the status and content of history, civics, and related subjects in the schools. In the evolution of the social studies curriculum the period from 1890 to 1920 was indeed the "era of national committees." Three of the committees which had major influence on the social studies curriculum are discussed in this section.

THE MADISON CONFERENCE. Almost from its founding in 1857 the National Teachers Association, now the National Education Association, exhibited concern for the teaching of social studies subjects in the schools. From time to time its members heard papers and passed resolutions about instruction in this field. In 1892 the Committee of Ten on Secondary Schools Studies was appointed. It carried out its assignment by organizing "conferences" on various subjects or groups of subjects in the secondary school curriculum. The Conference on History, Civil Government, and Political Economy met in Madison, Wisconsin early in 1893. Like the parent committee, the Madison Conference consisted of ten members, including along with school administrators such social scientists as Charles Kendall Adams, Edward G. Bourne, Albert Bushnell Hart, James Harvey Robinson, and Woodrow Wilson. The Conference recommended that "history and kindred subjects" should be taught in at least eight consecutive school years, with at least three 40-minute periods each week devoted to the program. American, English, Greek, Roman, and French history were to be included. The Conference also urged that one year of the eight should be devoted to intensive study of a selected topic, such as the struggle of France and England for North America or the period of the Renaissance. Civil government should be taught in the elementary schools in connection with the national history and local geography. In the high school the treatment should include study and observation of the pupil's local and state government, and comparisons between the United States and foreign governmental systems. The Conference urged that economic topics be treated in United States history, civil government, and commercial geography, but was opposed to formal instruction in political economy. The sequence suggested by the Conference for Grades 7 to 12 is shown in Table 7.

In the decade following the publication of the report of the Committee of Ten, the influence of the Madison Conference was definitely felt. There was a marked increase in United States and

TABLE 7

DEVELOPMENT OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDIES CURRICULUM

Grade	C O N T E N T		
	Madison Conference, 1893	American Historical Association Committee of Seven, 1898	National Education Association Committee on Social Studies, of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 1916
7	American history, and elements of civil government	English history*	Geography, one-half year; European history, one-half year—taught in sequence or parallel throughout year—and Civics, taught as part of geography and history or as a separate subject or European history, one year, with geography taught as a factor in history; and civics, taught either as an aspect of other subjects or in one or two periods a week American history, one-half year; civics, one-half year—taught in sequence or parallel throughout year. Geography to be taught as a factor in history and civics.
8	Greek and Roman history, with their oriental connections	American history*	Civics, economic and vocational aspects, one-half year, and one-half year of civics continuing that studied in Grade 8, with emphasis on state, national, and world elements; history to be studied in relation to civics topics or Economic and vocational civics and economic history, one year, in sequence or as parallel subjects
9	French history, taught so as to demonstrate the general movement of medieval and modern history	Ancient history, with special reference to Greek and Roman history; also, introductory study of the more ancient civilizations; early Middle Ages to 9th century	Senior High School: European history to 1700, 1 year European history, including English history, since 1700, one year or one-half year American history since 1700, one year or one-half year Problems of American democracy, one year or one-half year
10	English history, taught so as to demonstrate the general movement of medieval and modern history	Medieval and modern European history, from 9th century to present time	
11	American history	English history	
12	A special topic, studied intensively, and civil government	American history and civil government	

*The Committee made no recommendation for Grades 7 and 8, but a member of the Committee presented these recommendations in Appendix II of the

English history offerings, and some increase in the number of schools offering French, Greek, and Roman history. A few schools adopted an intensive study of a topic or special field. Contrary to the recommendation of the Madison Conference, general history grew in popularity during this same decade.

Other suggestions in the Madison Conference report have a mid-twentieth-century tone, reminding the modern reader that there is often a long step between recognition of basic principles and their application. The report urged that history should be taught along with geography and map-drawing, and should be related to appropriate literature. Students should be helped to integrate what they learned, to use a library of source materials supplemented by textbooks, and to discriminate among sources. The Conference considered the acquiring of facts to be the least important outcome of historical instruction; rather facts should be studied as a means of gaining the broader values of historical study.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE OF SEVEN. Probably the most directly influential of the national committees dealing with social studies subjects in the schools was the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association, appointed in 1898. Tryon summarized its effect by saying that for twenty years after the appearance of its report, "... high school courses in history were almost 100 per cent dictated by it," and that even in the 1930's probably one-third of the high schools were following its recommendations. The Committee included one member of the Madison Conference, Albert Bushnell Hart, along with such outstanding historians as Andrew C. McLaughlin and Herbert Baxter Adams. The only member connected with the secondary schools was the rector of the Hopkins Grammar School, in New Haven, Connecticut.

The Committee worked over a period of two years and, as a basis for its recommendations, studied the status of the teaching of history in the schools of the United States, Canada, and various European countries. It recommended specific blocks of historical study for each school year as shown in Table 7. Study of the recommendations will show that the Committee endorsed two cycles of chronological historical study in Grades 5 to 12.

Like the Madison Conference, the Committee of Seven was concerned with far more than a listing of content to be taught. The Report discussed the values of historical study, urging that it was a means of understanding the present, grasping cause-effect relationships, gathering and organizing information, developing "the scientific habit of mind and thought," and acquiring a back-

ground of information that will ". . . be a source of pleasure and gratification . . ." throughout life. It made suggestions about methods and materials, emphasizing the need for a well-equipped library and an adequate collection of maps, globes, and atlases. It pointed out the need for well-prepared teachers. Indeed, it included what is probably one of the first statements of a perennial complaint about the evils of assigning history classes to the coach to fill out his schedule.

In formulating its recommendations, the Committee of Seven worked from knowledge of the existing situation and with a broad view of historical study. This, plus the fact that the time was ripe for the acceptance of an authoritative report, accounts for the enormous and continuing influence of the Committee. Some ten years later the Association appointed another committee to review the recommendations of the Committee of Seven. The so-called Committee of Five suggested some modifications, chiefly a shifting of emphasis from the ancient and medieval periods to the modern. The general effect of its report, however, was to endorse the earlier statement and strengthen its influence.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION COMMITTEE ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES. In 1913, just two decades after the influential report of its Committee of Ten, the National Education Association established the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. This Commission worked through seventeen committees, one of which was the Committee on the Social Studies appointed in 1916. The composition of this committee and its approach to curriculum issues reflected basic changes that had come in public education during these two decades. Both the Madison Conference and the Committee of Seven had been composed chiefly of university professors of the social sciences. The Committee on the Social Studies, with a membership of 21, included only two historians; the majority of its members were secondary-school administrators and teachers. The earlier committees had considered what should be taught in secondary schools in the light of the requirements of the social science fields. The Committee on the Social Studies approached its assignment with an orientation that emphasized the psychology of the learner and the needs of society. It emphasized good citizenship and social efficiency as the functional goals of social studies instruction. It popularized the term "social studies," thus epitomizing the changed point of view concerning secondary school study of social science materials. It urged the necessity of local development of the social studies curriculum in terms of the local situation. Its recommendations therefore in-

cluded alternative programs for each year except Grade 10, and were stated in relatively general terms, not spelled out as specifically as were those of the Committee of Seven. The recommendations of the Committee on the Social Studies were revolutionary on certain points, as a comparison of its program with those of the earlier committees shows in Table 7.

Study of the table also reveals that the Committee on the Social Studies utilized a modified cycle plan to establish sequence. Its program increased the attention given to materials drawn from the contemporary social sciences. It urged a broadened conception of civics in the junior high school years, focusing on the functioning of governments rather than on study of structure, and including economic and vocational aspects of civics. It encouraged fusion or correlation of social studies subjects. For the senior high school, it cut the time devoted to ancient history by half and increased the emphasis on modern European and American history. This shift set the stage for the later development of the one-year world history course and the one-year American history course found in most high schools today. Most revolutionary of all, it urged that instead of separate courses in economics, government, and sociology there should be a Problems of Democracy course in which ". . . concrete problems of vital importance to society and of immediate interest to the pupil . . ." should be studied. The specific problems should be selected anew from time to time, on the basis of the two criteria of social importance and pupil interest.

The eventual influence of the report of the Committee on the Social Studies was enormous. Indeed, today's social studies programs follow many of this committee's recommendations to a great extent. A number of national committees have studied various aspects of the social studies curriculum since this report was issued, but they have avoided the specific kinds of recommendations made by the committees of the 1890's. Instead they have followed the lead of the Committee on the Social Studies, to emphasize the selection and organization of social studies materials in terms of the purposes of secondary education, the potential interests of the learners, and the needs of the local situation.

EXPANSION AND DIFFERENTIATION SINCE 1920

In the decades since World War I the social studies curriculum in secondary schools has undergone major expansion. The trend to include more materials from the contemporary social sciences, marked in the Report of the Committee on the Social Studies in

1916, has continued apace. Current events, international affairs, housing problems, personal problems, and other such topics have become accepted as appropriate for study in secondary social studies. At the same time, differentiation to meet local situations has been stressed. The result has been the proliferation of social studies offerings noted in Chapter 2. Trends in the social order, in the social sciences, and in professional education are thus reflected, although slowly and incompletely, in the social studies curriculum.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN A CHANGING WORLD. The intensification of societal stresses resulting from rapid economic and social changes in the postwar twenties and thirties had an inevitable impact on the secondary schools and on social studies programs. The school, now clearly an institution for mass education, found itself cast in a new, expanded role. The enunciation of the Seven Cardinal Principles (1918) as goals of secondary education was an explicit recognition of this broader role.

The nature of the new expectations to be fulfilled by the school made the social studies a central part of the school program. Citizenship education, more broadly conceived as civic competence, received new emphasis. Concern for patriotism during and after World War I brought a wave of legislation requiring the schools to teach the history and the Constitution of the United States. Without specific evidence to support the view, it was widely assumed that the study of history, geography, and civics would provide much of the knowledge and many of the competencies needed to meet these situations. In addition, new social studies "subjects" such as current events, international relations, and vocations were urged by some as essential if the school was to do its job.

World War II brought a new wave of concern for patriotism, which was extended into the postwar, cold-war years. Citizenship education was re-examined through research studies and experimental programs such as those described in Chapter 22. Events of this period also revealed gaps in popular understanding about non-European areas of the world, especially the continents of Asia and Africa. Internal tensions focused attention anew on intergroup relations and economic education.

Throughout the decades since World War I, pressure groups of various kinds and with a variety of goals have attempted to influence the social studies curriculum in the secondary schools. They have criticized, attacked, and supported selected aspects of the program. Some of these groups have been selfishly oriented, working to disseminate views that would redound to their economic or political advantage. Some have had no personal advantage to gain,

but have been dedicated to questionable and partisan goals. Some have urged intelligently formulated programs intended to raise the level of citizenship education. It is likely that in no previous period have as many diverse sectors of American society attempted to influence the content and nature of the school program and especially the social studies offering. This situation can be a healthy one in a democratic society, provided the teaching staff is competent and that adequate safeguards against direct interference with the schools are maintained. That it has contributed to the expansion and differentiation of the social studies curriculum cannot be doubted.

EXPANSION OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES. Research in the various social sciences during the twentieth century has contributed to the expansion and differentiation of the secondary school social studies curriculum. New bodies of data have been collected, as in the fields of sociology and social psychology, where concern with the "normal" operation of societal institutions and groups has replaced a preoccupation with maladjustments. New interpretations and emphases have been developed, as in the field of history, where a mass of social and economic materials and fresh interpretations have been made much more available to the curriculum builder. The political scientist, with increased attention to the functioning of domestic and international political institutions, has enriched the stockpile on which the secondary teacher may draw. The economist and the geographer have made their contributions, along with scholars who have used an interdisciplinary approach to study particular social problems or geographic areas.

Selection of content for social studies instruction in the secondary schools is, of course, enormously complicated by the very wealth which is also a major advantage. But the existence of this vast amount of data should facilitate the development of social studies programs to meet particular regional or local needs, provided curriculum-makers and teachers are able to use it wisely.

NEW APPROACHES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT. The scientific movement in education, involving objective statistical measurement and an analytic approach to curriculum construction, was well under way before World War I. The movement was continued into the 1920's with careful study of various human activities, such as job analysis, analysis of vocabulary used in newspapers and magazines, or analysis of vocabularies used in actual correspondence. It was hoped through the evidence thus collected to identify basic elements that should be included in the school curriculum. At the same time, an analysis of the process of cur-

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riculum planning was undertaken. Steps similar to those presented in Chapter 3 (p. 34) were identified, and their application in each local situation was urged. Two leaders in this movement, Harold and Earle Rugg, pointed out the lack of a systematic, scientific approach to curriculum planning on the part of the earlier national committees. They called for the use of the quantitative approach to identify socially useful elements for the social studies curriculum, and their organization into units for instruction.

RECENT NATIONAL COMMITTEES. The learned societies of social scientists continued their interest in the teaching of social studies in the schools. An important study was made during the 1930's by the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association, which worked under the chairmanship of A. C. Krey. The Commission consisted of sixteen distinguished scholars and educators, such as Charles A. Beard, George S. Counts, Isaiah Bowman, Henry Johnson, and Charles E. Merriam. Its work was financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, which made possible extensive research projects. The report of the Krey Commission was published in seventeen volumes, which appeared between 1932 and 1941. The titles, which are listed on page 382, indicate the broad range of the Commission's work. It considered the relation of the school to its society and sought to identify significant trends and problems in American society as a basis for studies of various aspects of the social studies curriculum and instruction. In its *Conclusions and Recommendations* the Commission refused to recommend a single program of study for secondary school social studies. It concluded that it was impossible to identify any one body of content or any one organization of materials that would serve everywhere to achieve the goals of social studies instruction. Rather it urged that teachers, administrators, and scholars band together in regional or local groups to develop social studies programs appropriate to their own situations.

The Commission's Report offered a wealth of valuable material for social studies teachers and curriculum-makers. Because it did not furnish a blueprint for courses of study or textbooks, it was disappointing to many who were still thinking in terms of a fixed content to be determined by a group of specialists and taught throughout the nation. Its influence has been considerable, however, and individual volumes continue to have great value for the social studies teacher.

In 1940 another national committee refused, after careful study, to recommend a specific content and organizational pattern for the secondary-school social studies program. It was the Committee

on the Function of the Social Studies in General Education, of the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association. Its report was published under the title, *The Social Studies in General Education* (see Selected Readings). Instead of describing one definitive program, the Committee emphasized the importance of developing social studies instruction to meet adolescent needs in basic areas of experience—personal-social relationships, sociocivic relationships, economic relationships, and personal living. It stressed the necessity of considering these needs within the context of the contemporary social setting and planning social studies instruction accordingly. Like many of the volumes of the Krey Commission report, *The Social Studies in General Education* continues to offer thought-provoking ideas to the social studies teacher.

During World War II, as a result of charges that United States history was neglected in the public schools, this specific aspect of the social studies curriculum was studied by the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges, which was set up by the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies. Edgar B. Wesley served as its director. After study of state laws requiring the teaching of United States history, of courses of study, and of responses to a questionnaire survey, the Committee concluded that any lack of popular knowledge about American history resulted from the quality, not the quantity, of instruction in the subject. It found that almost every high school graduate studied United States history three times: in the intermediate grades, the junior high school, and the senior high school. The Committee criticized the resulting duplication and recommended different emphases in content for each cycle of American history study, as follows:

Intermediate grades: emphasis on the colonial and early national periods ($\frac{2}{3}$ year), and on social history.

Junior High School: emphasis on the century from 1776 to 1876 ($\frac{2}{3}$ year), and on the westward movement and simple aspects of the industrial revolution.

Senior high school: emphasis on the period since 1865 ($\frac{1}{2}$ year), and on political and economic development of the nation, along with foreign relations.

The Committee did not suggest a specific course of study for each grade level. Its recommendations as to content emphasis have had considerable influence on American history courses and textbooks, but the problem of unplanned duplication from one cycle to the other has not been solved.

Recent national committees concerned with the social studies curriculum have thus contributed to its expansion and its differentiation from one school to another. Even the Committee on American History, which designated a "minimum content" for United States history to be studied at each school level, did so in general terms and urged that each school staff select the form of organization and the enriching content in terms of the local situation. The effect of these committee reports, in general, has been to strengthen the influence of the other forces responsible for the expansion and differentiation of social studies programs since the end of World War I.

A PERIOD OF REAPPRAISAL

In the late 1950's there came a rising demand for more aggressive curriculum leadership from professional and scholarly groups at the national level. This demand grew out of a realization that while some schools had developed sound social studies programs on the basis of local curriculum planning, others had achieved only makeshift adaptations. It also grew out of a recognition that in a majority of the schools of the nation, a heavy proportion of the social studies content was of World War I vintage. The National Council for the Social Studies reacted to the demand in 1955 by appointing a *Committee on Concepts and Values in the Social Studies*, followed in 1958 by a National Commission on the Social Studies.

The Committee on Concepts and Values published the result of three years of work in a report, *A Guide to Content in the Social Studies*. This report identified fourteen basic themes or concept areas for the social studies program and gave illustrative content and generalizations to be used in developing each theme through the total program from kindergarten to junior college. The themes were:

Intelligent uses of the forces of nature

Recognition and understanding of world interdependence

Recognition of the dignity and worth of the individual

Use of intelligence to improve human living

Vitalization of democracy through an intelligent use of public educational facilities

Intelligent acceptance, by individuals and groups, of responsibility for achieving democratic social action

Increasing the effectiveness of the family as a basic social institution

Effective development of moral and spiritual values

Intelligent and responsible sharing of power in order to attain justice

Intelligent utilization of scarce resources to attain the widest general well-being

Achievement of adequate horizons of loyalty

Cooperation in the interest of peace and welfare

Achieving a balance between social stability and social change

Widening and deepening the ability to live more richly

The Committee made no effort to recommend grade placement of content, nor a curriculum organization within which it should be taught.

The National Commission on the Social Studies, in its report in 1958, reviewed basic changes and movements which characterize American society today and called for a full-scale reappraisal of the social studies curriculum. It pointed out that much of the social studies content being taught was outmoded, either in terms of societal needs or because it had been superseded by recent research in the social sciences. It urged closer cooperation between social studies specialists and social scientists, and pointed out the need for a national study that would result in recommendations sufficiently specific to give definite guidance to local school systems without prescribing a single, set program. The recommendations of this Commission indicate that the 1960's are likely to see major revisions in the social studies curriculum.

Social studies subjects have moved from a peripheral to a central position in the school curriculum during the past century. The amount of time devoted to social studies subjects and the depth and breadth of content included in them have been expanded enormously. The basic form of the present social studies curriculum was set during the "era of national committees," between 1890 and 1920. However, the emphasis on local curriculum planning in the generation just passed has brought considerable differentiation in social studies programs from one school system to another. At the present time, a period of reappraisal and potential change in the social studies curriculum seems to be on the horizon. The major trends and issues that are currently being debated are discussed in the next chapter.

SELECTED READINGS

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

THE COMMISSION ON SOCIAL STUDIES OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.
Reports published by Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, 1932-1941.

- I. BEARD, CHARLES A. *A Charter for the Social Sciences in the Schools*, 1932.
- II. JOHNSON, HENRY. *An Introduction to the History of the Social Sciences in the Schools*, 1932.
- III. PIERCE, BESSIE L. *Citizens' Organizations and the Civic Training of Youth*, 1933.
- IV. KELLEY, TRUMAN L., and KREY, AUGUST C. *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*, 1934.
- V. BOWMAN, ISAIAH. *Geography in Relation to the Social Sciences*, 1934.
- VI. MERRIAM, CHARLES E. *Civic Education in the United States*, 1934.
- VII. BEARD, CHARLES A. *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, 1934.
- VIII. NEWLON, JESSE H. *Educational Administration as Social Policy*, 1934.
- IX. COUNTS, GEORGE A., and others. *Social Foundations of Education*, 1934.
- X. CURTI, MERLE. *The Social Ideas of American Educators*, 1935.
- XI. TRYON, ROLLA M. *The Social Sciences as School Subjects*, 1935.
- XII. BEALE, HOWARD K. *Are American Teachers Free?* 1936.
- XIII. MARSHALL, LEON C., and GOETZ, RACHEL M. *Curriculum Making in the Social Studies: A Social Process Approach*, 1936.
- XIV. BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and ALEXANDER, THOMAS. *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, 1937.
- XV. HORN, ERNEST. *Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies*, 1937.
- XVI. BEALE, HOWARD K. *A History of Freedom of Teaching in American Schools, 1941. Conclusions and Recommendations*, 1934.

COMMITTEES ON CONCEPTS AND VALUES OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. *A Guide to Content in the Social Studies*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1957. Pp. 73.

Identifies 14 general themes or "principles and values" as goals of American democracy, and suggests that they be used to determine the scope of the social studies curriculum. Provides illustrative content for the development of each theme.

COUNCIL FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF SECONDARY EDUCATION. *Requisites for Economic Literacy*. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1956. Pp. .

Identifies the most important economic concepts as determined by a national survey. An example of a quantitative approach to curriculum-making.

ELLSWORTH, RUTH, and SAND, OLE (eds.). *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum*, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1955.

Includes chapters on "Forces Affecting Curriculum Improvement," "Tasks to Be Done in Improving the Social Studies Curriculum," and "Processes Used in Improving the Social Studies Curriculum." Other chapters describe curriculum changes and the role of the National Council for the Social Studies in curriculum improvement.

SCOTT, C. WINFIELD, and HILL, CLYDE M. (eds.). *Public Education Under Criticism*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954.

A collection of readings on criticisms of schools, including social studies offerings, analyses of these attacks, and ways of handling criticisms.

THAYER, V. T., and others. *The Social Studies in General Education*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1940.

The report of the Committee on the Functions of the Social Studies in General Education, for the Commission of Secondary School Curriculum of the Progressive Education Association. Identifies important areas of living, defines adolescent needs in these areas, and suggests ways of meeting these needs.

WESLEY, EDGAR B. (director). *American History in Schools and Colleges*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1944.

The report of a committee established jointly by the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies. Presents results of a survey and makes recommendations for vertical articulation of the three cycles of United States history in the schools. Essential reading for history teachers.

ISSUES AND TRENDS IN THE CURRICULUM

The social studies curriculum frequently is the focus of considerable discussion and even conflict among educators and among citizens who are interested in the schools. Perhaps the surprising thing is not that there is conflict over particular issues and continuing concern about a number of problems related to the social studies curriculum, but that there are a number of widely accepted trends.

ISSUES RELATED TO SELECTION AND ORGANIZATION OF CONTENT

The effort to introduce new content emphases in the social studies curriculum that has come in the twentieth century, and especially since World War I, is stoutly defended by some educators and citizens and is heartily criticized by others. The differentiation in social studies programs from one school system to another is defended and denounced with equal vigor. The curriculum pattern to be used in organizing the social studies program remains a matter for debate. Differences of view on such issues relating to selection and organization of content for the social studies curriculum arise from divergent views of the responsibility of the school in modern society, from acceptance of different theories of learning, and from adherence to different schools of educational philosophy.

CONTENT EMPHASES. Shall the social studies curriculum consist of materials drawn chiefly from political history, civics, geography, and perhaps economics, with the major emphasis on the develop-

ment of Western culture? Shall the social studies program emphasize contemporary social and economic problems and current world affairs? Shall it include attention to problems of personal and vocational adjustment of individual students? These questions state, in rather extreme and arbitrary terms, the issues concerning content emphases in the social studies program.

Those who hold that the content of the social studies curriculum should be limited to traditional elements criticize the school for having accepted functions that were once left to the family and the church. Treatment in social studies of such topics as personal development and adjustment, vocational guidance, and consumer education are cited as examples. Many of these critics also hold that to give study of contemporary problems a major place in the social studies curriculum is inappropriate. The school's responsibility, runs the argument, is to teach the cultural heritage and develop the intellectual abilities of the student. In the social studies this can best be done through a thorough study of non-contemporary social science materials.

Others urge that the social studies curriculum should emphasize materials that will develop an understanding of contemporary societal problems. They would reduce the amount of time spent on non-contemporary materials as such, and would eliminate from the social studies program materials dealing with personal and vocational problems, in order to devote the available time to the other topics which they consider to be of first priority in social studies instruction.

Yet another point of view holds that the social studies program should include treatment of both broad societal problems and personal and vocational interests. Like the second group cited, the supporters of this view believe that contemporary affairs and problems must be studied in the schools if the nation is to have an adequately informed citizenry. They point out the increased complexity of public policy and the corresponding increase in the social science knowledge that is available, and urge that schools must help young people gain some familiarity with the problems and potential approaches for dealing with them. As for young people's problems of personal and vocational adjustment, these are not being adequately handled by the home and the church; therefore the school must give help. Furthermore, this third group argues, social studies programs that draw appropriately on the contemporary social sciences can treat these social adjustment problems of students in a way that most parents cannot, for lack of information. Through study of contemporary affairs and personal problems, many of the

skills and attitudes needed for democratic citizenship can be developed. Study of them also stimulates interest in more conventional materials, which remain a basic part of the social studies program.

There is general agreement among all the three schools of thought that an effort to treat too many topics results in superficial learning, poor retention, and failure on the part of students to develop important interests and skills. While research is needed to determine the relative learning dividends that can be obtained from intensive study of a few topics as compared with less intensive study of many, it seems clear that existing programs tend to "cover" too many topics to permit adequate study of most of them. The issue is not whether a more careful selection of content is needed in order to develop an effective social studies program; rather the issue is the basis on which the selection shall be made. The view of the third group cited above, that both contemporary problems of society and of the individual should be included in the social studies curriculum, has gained wide acceptance. It has been increasingly challenged during the past decade, however, on the one hand by those who would restrict the content to the traditional elements and on the other by those who demand a contemporary emphasis but would *minimize attention to problems of personal adjustment*.

DEGREE OF UNIFORMITY. Should students in every part of the nation study a uniform social studies content? Or should content be selected in each classroom, or each school system, in terms of the immediate situation, and so strengthen the trend to a diversified content in social studies programs?

Few if any social studies specialists would argue for a fixed, completely uniform content for the social studies curriculum, even if such a plan could be enforced under the system of state and local control of education which exists in the United States. There are those among both educators and layman, however, who favor a much greater degree of uniformity than exists. They propose that specialists in the social sciences and in social studies education, working together, formulate statements of minimum essentials to be taught in each year of the social studies program. They note that many teachers use the content provided in a single basic textbook rather than making a selection in terms of the needs and abilities of their students and of the local environment. Better, the argument runs, to have a selection made by experts whose lead would be followed by textbook authors. Those who favor more uniformity point out the increased mobility of our population and

the handicaps many youngsters encounter as they enter a new school where curriculum content for a given year is different from that in the previous school. They refer to the fact that modern technology has created a national community and drastically altered the characteristics of local communities. They emphasize the importance of developing a common body of civic information and attitudes among the citizenry of such a large diversified nation as the United States. They believe this goal could be attained partially through a more uniform social studies curriculum in the public schools.

Few if any social studies specialists would argue that there should be no common elements in social studies programs across the nation. There is universal agreement that young citizens must learn about their national heritage and about contemporary society, and be helped to develop desirable civic attitudes and behaviors. But many educators resist the proposal that social studies programs should become standardized across the nation, with a set of facts assigned to be taught in each school year. They argue that research in human development and psychology of learning indicates the futility of such a procedure, that the teacher must be free to select specific content in terms of such factors as experience backgrounds of students, available materials, and local community resources and conditions.

In the past half-century the pendulum has swung from a fairly uniform content in social studies programs toward a diversified, differentiated content. Now it seems to be swinging back toward center position. Many educators can agree on certain basic concepts, generalizations, attitudes, and skills that should be developed through the social studies program. They can agree that certain of these should be emphasized in the junior high school or in the senior high school. The agreement breaks down when it comes to stating a specific sequence of factual content for each school year. There has emerged in practice, as you read on page 22, relatively widespread agreement on certain general themes or content areas to be taught in each year of the junior and senior high school. It seems unlikely and (to these authors, at least) undesirable that the pendulum should ever swing back to a fixed content for the social studies curriculum. More promising is the proposal for outlining a general framework for the social studies curriculum. This framework would be stated in terms of concepts and generalizations, attitudes, and skills to be developed through agreed upon themes or general content areas assigned to each grade level. Individual teachers and their classes then select the specific topics,

within the grade-level content area, through which the concepts, generalizations, attitudes, and skills are to be treated.

CURRICULUM PATTERNS. Each of the curriculum patterns that is used to organize social studies programs has features that recommend it. Certain difficulties or problems are associated with each.

Social Studies Subjects. The traditional pattern of separate subjects has advantages or it could not have persisted as it has. The subject organization provides a systematic framework for the content, a definite continuity whether it be in terms of chronology (as in history) or related topics (as in civics or geography). Teachers are prepared, by their study of the social sciences as separate subjects, to organize and present separate social studies subjects. A great deal of professional experimentation and writing concerning classroom procedures has been done within the pattern of the subject curriculum. This serves to reinforce the subject organization. Most of the textbooks and other commercially prepared learning materials available for secondary-school social studies fit the subject curriculum. In most cases, the students' parents studied a subject curriculum when they were in secondary school. They tend to favor that which is within their own experience and to be suspicious of innovations.

On the other hand, critics of the subject organization for secondary-school social studies find various grounds for their views. The logical requirements of the subject as an organized area of knowledge, they say, usually take precedence over considerations of learnability and usefulness of the content for the student. Recent events and problems of the contemporary world tend to be neglected in favor of older, firmly established materials. There is a tendency, in a subject curriculum, to add new courses to deal with such admittedly important topics as "International Affairs" or "The Far East," but few students have time to take them. Even if all pertinent topics could be presented in new courses and all students could study them, another present difficulty would remain. Facts may be taught in unrelated fashion. Information about taxation, for example, may be scattered through separate courses in history, economics, government, and sociology with no functional, well-rounded study of the problems of taxation today. This fragmentation of content hinders the development of sound generalizations about conditions and problems of modern society. It does not encourage students to apply facts learned in one course to another situation. It handicaps efforts to teach critical thinking and to encourage the use of problem-solving techniques. It interferes with

efforts to see social problems in their total setting. It may cause students (and teachers) to place memorizing information above understanding and using it. Critics of the subject organization for secondary school social studies also point out that the traditional nature of the course organization and the convenience of subject-organized textbooks may encourage the use of dull, routine teaching methods—the daily assignment of so many pages, the unvarying monotony of the question-answer recitation, and the factual examination testing for recall of specific information. Defenders of the subject organization, in reply, argue that the defects cited can also be found in other curriculum patterns besides the subject curriculum, and that effective teaching procedures can be used within a subject course if the teacher will do so.

Social Studies Fusion. The pattern of social studies fusion or broad-fields curriculum is urged by some educators as retaining many of the advantages of the subject curriculum while eliminating or reducing the disadvantages. A social studies fusion course developed around historical chronology or a series of area studies, for example, would have a logical continuity and a systematic organization in terms of the subject matter. Many available learning materials, while not specifically planned for this kind of course, could be easily adapted to it. By reducing the number of separate courses and providing for a broader treatment of the topics that are studied, the pattern of social studies fusion reduces the fragmentation of information concerning a given topic. Within this pattern, problem-centered study can be developed and emphasis can be placed on the processes of critical thinking. Topics of contemporary urgency, such as labor-management relations or the control and use of atomic power, can be fitted into a social studies fusion or broad-fields course more easily than into a conventional subject curriculum. The number of separate social studies courses can be reduced in favor of a basic broad-fields offering for all students. Finally, teachers who are prepared in the social sciences can feel reasonably secure in a social studies fusion course while they may reject a curriculum plan that requires them to deal with content from literature, science, or other fields of knowledge.

Many critics of the subject curriculum think that the pattern of social studies fusion or broad-fields represents a constructive step, but that it does not go far enough in providing a functional organization. The same criticisms that apply to the subject curriculum are held to apply, though to a lesser extent, to the pattern of social studies fusion. There is likely to be an emphasis on a logical organization of content, perhaps at the expense of its useful-

ness and learnability for young people, say the critics. Retention of factual information, rather than the ability to find and use information in problem-solving, is frequently stressed, even though this need not be the case. Fragmentation of information about a particular problem or topic, while reduced, may still exist in a broad-fields program. In short, say the critics, the social studies fusion or broad-fields curriculum pattern merely sets up broader compartments in place of the conventional subjects. It still leaves to the pupil, unassisted, the task of synthesizing ideas and facts about society's problems from different compartments.

Integrative Programs. Integrative patterns of curriculum organization, whether labeled "core" or given some other title, are considered by some educators to provide potential advantages. Content may be selected on the basis of its significance for the personal lives of students and for their understanding of society's problems. Instruction can more easily be organized in these patterns so as to provide experience in critical thinking and problem-solving, and so as to encourage independence in study, urge those who favor integrative programs. Because of this, more transfer from classroom study of social problems to out-of-school life can be expected from integrative programs than from those of a subject or broad-fields curriculum. The longer class period facilitates a wide variety of procedures and flexible use of learning materials. Since a teacher works with students over a longer period of time and comes to understand them more fully than in a subject or broad-fields course, there is more opportunity for functional guidance and for individualized instruction.

Integrative programs have been functioning in some secondary schools for more than a generation, and there has been some evaluation of results achieved through them. Much of the evidence from the Eight-Year Study and from more recent investigations favors the integrative program over the subject curriculum or the social studies fusion. Studies of several experiments have indicated that students learned as much or more factual information in the broader programs as in the traditional ones and showed additional gains in such aspects of their development as breadth of interest, independent study habits, critical thinking skills, and ability to work with others.

Some critics of integrative programs hold that the integrity of the separate subject fields is lost in this form of curriculum organization. They argue that unless geography is taught as geography and history as history, for example, students will not gain insight into either the method or the content of these disciplines.

Other critics of integrative programs accept the theories which underlie this curriculum pattern, but point out the difficulties of developing integrative or core courses effectively. One of the problems has to do with the teacher's preparation and his own view of his proper role. Many teachers, especially those who feel somewhat insecure, cling to the idea that in order to hold the respect of students and to teach them effectively, the teacher must "know all the answers." The thoughtful teacher of a subject course has always recognized that this is not true, that however thoroughly he is prepared, it is not possible to know the answer to every question raised by pupils. Indeed, if he does, it is probable that the students either have not been stimulated to do much thinking or that they have been discouraged from raising questions. The teacher of a core or common learnings class must accept the role of the well-informed, mature leader of the group who helps students find answers to their questions. This means that he must himself possess a broad background of information and knowledge of the techniques of analysis used in the various disciplines that the class will draw upon, although he need not be a specialist in each of these fields. Many teachers, it is argued, have not received the broad preparation which is required to handle integrated courses effectively.

Finding and organizing enough suitable learning materials for a core class is often a difficulty. Textbooks for specific subjects, the predominant type of learning material available, do not facilitate the students' search for information about a broad topic or problem. While many social studies films, pamphlets, and other non-text materials are available, there are some important topics that are not treated in these materials. In any case, the job of finding and organizing such materials is *time-consuming and sometimes discouraging*, even for an adequately prepared teacher; for one who is less than adequately prepared, it may be an impossible task.

Obtaining parental and student understanding of this new form of curriculum organization sometimes presents another hurdle in developing a core or integrative program. The tendency to resist and be suspicious of change has sometimes been reflected in the attitudes held by school patrons toward core classes. Where more flexible curriculum patterns have been used successfully, parents and students (as well as teachers) have been helped to understand the why and how of the new plan.

Which curriculum pattern best facilitates social studies learnings? There is no single answer to that question. The plan which is most useful in situation A may not be the one that would work

best in situation B. Such factors as the quality of teacher preparation and of available materials in the particular situation must be considered. It is clear, however, that more (and more systematic) evaluation of the various patterns for organizing social studies instruction is needed.

TRENDS IN SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS

Throughout the history of American public schools, social studies offerings have reflected, more or less promptly, major developments in society. The social tensions and problems resulting from World War II, followed by postwar readjustments and a continuing period of international uncertainty, have caused four areas of study to receive increased attention in social studies programs. They are citizenship education, intergroup or human relations education, economic education, and education for understanding of world affairs. Each of these areas has been treated in social studies classrooms for many years, but during the past decade each has been the subject of experimentation and special emphasis.

CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION. Perhaps the outstanding trend in social studies teaching since the end of World War II has been a renewed emphasis on one of the oldest basic elements of the field, namely, citizenship education. There have been fresh efforts to describe good citizenship behaviors, and a number of research programs have been conducted to discover more effective methods for teaching these behaviors.

Soon after World War II a joint committee of the National Council for the Social Studies and the United States Department of Defense prepared a functional description of the "good democratic citizen" (see Readings, Chap. 3). It is a significant document, worthy of study by every social studies teacher, both because of its content and because of the process through which it was developed. The committee drew up a list of characteristics which its members considered essential to effective citizenship in a democracy and obtained reactions to the list from more than 300 prominent citizens. This jury of critics included leaders of labor, management, farm, and religious groups, as well as outstanding lawyers, educators, government leaders, and members of other professions. The final description, reflecting the views of many segments of American society, consists of a list of twenty-four characteristic behaviors of a good citizen. It emphasizes the attitudes and the skills needed to act constructively in civic affairs, as well as the knowledge needed by citizens. This document has continu-

ing usefulness for individual social studies teachers and for curriculum committees. It furnishes guidance for the selection of curriculum content and for the development of evaluation measures.

Three outstanding studies in citizenship education were the Citizenship Education Study of Detroit and Wayne University, the Kansas Study of Education for Citizenship, and the Citizenship Education Project of Teachers College, Columbia University. Their findings were strikingly similar, although the procedures and emphasis in the three projects varied considerably.

The results of the investigations indicated that students learn many citizenship facts in their social studies classes. They learn a great deal of information about government, American democratic ideals, and related areas. But many students make little growth, as they go through the secondary school, in critical thinking skills and in the habits, attitudes, and abilities that lead them to become active participants in civic affairs.

The data from the investigations suggest that social studies programs should provide many more opportunities for students to consider alternative solutions for socio-civic problems and to participate actively in civic affairs of the school and community. Findings of the Detroit Study emphasized that "The emotional adjustment of pupils is the most important factor in the quality of citizenship of boys and girls" (see Selected Readings). Preliminary research of the Kansas Study suggested the need for more problem-centered units in social studies programs, and the elimination of unplanned duplication from one year to another. Both emphasized the need for *direct, continuing teaching of critical thinking skills*. These and other citizenship education projects have pointed up the need to get young people emotionally involved with civic affairs and ideals, as well as to give them citizenship information.

HUMAN RELATIONS EDUCATION. Closely related to citizenship education, or even a part of it, is education for improved human relations. For at least a generation the concepts of tolerance among diverse groups and equality of rights and opportunities for all individuals have been accepted as appropriate for development in social studies programs. The stresses and strains of World War II and the postwar years increased problems of discrimination against minority groups and threats of racial strife. In response to the obvious need for more effective school programs in this area, considerable research and experimentation with intergroup education has been carried out. The most comprehensive study was that sponsored by the American Council on Education, "Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools." The staff of the study and the

faculties of the participating schools worked together to develop learning materials and techniques for teaching the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for improved human relations (see Selected Readings). The National Council for the Social Studies, the Bureau of Intercultural Relations, and the John Dewey Society issued publications reporting promising practices in intergroup education.

As data were accumulated, the conception of intergroup education expanded. The early focus on improving relationships among persons of differing racial, religious, or nationality backgrounds was broadened. Problems of mutual understanding among persons of different socioeconomic groups, of different regions, or of rural versus urban backgrounds were seen to be a part of intergroup education. The name "human relations education" was evolved to describe this new, broader conception of the problem area.

From the great variety of study, experimentation, and research that has been done in the field of human relations education, a number of conclusions can be drawn. Factual information about minority groups, races, problems of discrimination, contributions of various ethnic groups to the culture, and so on, must be included in the social studies curriculum as a basis for healthy attitudes toward persons of groups other than one's own. Stereotypes about groups must be identified and destroyed through the application of critical thinking. But information alone will not cause students to develop socially desirable attitudes and behaviors toward those of other groups. Experiences that will sensitize the student to the problems of human relations and help him to feel another's point of view as well as understand it intellectually must be provided. Human relations skills, including discussion techniques and co-operative work skills, must be taught. Isolated units on problems of minority groups or other aspects of human relations have little permanent effect on attitudes or behaviors. Rather there must be a cumulative series of exposures to information and sensitizing experiences in the area of human relations.

Much of the content ordinarily included in social studies programs can contribute to effective human relations education. In United States history classes, for example, there is opportunity to treat aspects of human relations in connection with such topics as immigration, slavery, the Reconstruction period, the rise of labor unions, or the history of religious groups. To contribute to positive attitudes and insights concerning human relations, however, these topics must be presented within a framework of democratic social values.

ECONOMIC EDUCATION. The increased emphasis on economic education within the past decade has complex origins. The depression of the 1930's focused attention on dislocations of the economy. Problems of the national budget, the tax system, and the relation of government spending to private enterprise highlighted the need in a democracy for voters who understand economic issues. The individual's need for understandings that will enable him to manage his own affairs within an intricate economic system has also become more urgent.

Efforts to improve and increase economic education have been stimulated by a series of special projects sponsored by educational and lay groups. During the 1940's the National Association of Secondary School Principals sponsored the Consumer Education Study, through which materials on consumer economics were prepared for student use. Recommendations were also developed for placement of consumer economics topics in the social studies and other parts of the school curriculum. Within the past decade the Joint Council on Economic Education and the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education have carried on research to identify basic economic concepts that should be taught. The Joint Council has also sponsored many workshops for teachers, where plans and materials for teaching economic understandings have been developed.

The efforts to improve economic education have focused on introducing a fuller and more effective treatment of economic concepts into existing social studies programs, not on adding economics courses. Between 1922 and 1951 the number of such separate courses did not increase materially, but there has been a great increase in the time devoted to economic topics in history, geography, civics, and social problems courses. Treatment of these topics has shifted from the teaching of economic theory in a relatively abstract fashion to study of contemporary economic problems. The problem-centered approach is defended as making economic information more learnable for high school students. Another trend has been to give greater attention to personalized aspects of economics, ranging from wise buying and saving to planning for retirement.

WORLD AFFAIRS EDUCATION. The renewed emphasis since World War II on study of other peoples and of world affairs is an acceleration of a trend that has been developing since the end of World War I. The reasons for it are obvious—the increased responsibility of the United States for world leadership, the continuing

growth of world interdependence, and the critical importance that international relations has assumed in the age of satellites and nuclear weapons. The emphasis on world affairs education has continued to grow stronger in spite of objections in some localities from small but vocal pressure groups, who fail to recognize the urgency of the present world situation and the need for a citizenry that is adequately informed about it.

Education for understanding of world affairs is based on study of other peoples of the world, agencies of international cooperation, and current world problems. Few separate courses in world affairs or international relations have been introduced in high schools. Rather, attention is given to these topics within the basic social studies offering. Courses in United States history, for example, often include some study of the United Nations and its agencies, of the history of American foreign relations and the machinery for conducting them, and of United States policies concerning world problems today. Civics courses in both the ninth and twelfth grades usually give some attention to international organizations and United States participation in world affairs. The opportunities in geography and world history courses for a study of other peoples and of world problems have been capitalized upon to some extent in most schools.

Improved education for understanding of world affairs has been stimulated by many studies and programs sponsored by educational organizations. The American Council on Education, in cooperation with other agencies, has sponsored a series of textbook analyses. These have resulted in the identification and, to some extent, the elimination of stereotyped, prejudiced, or inaccurate treatments of other peoples and events involving conflict between nations. Most of these studies also included recommendations about topics that should be presented more fully and about ways of presenting them in more learnable fashion (see Selected Readings for Chapter 17, textbook studies sponsored by American Council on Education and study by McClure). The National Council for the Social Studies has published helpful materials through its journal and its series of bulletins and yearbooks. Particularly outstanding is its Twenty-fifth Yearbook, *Approaches To An Understanding of World Affairs*. The Council has also sponsored an experimental program in the teaching of world affairs. Other branches of the National Education Association have carried on programs of publication and other activities related to education for understanding of world affairs. The North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges has sponsored the preparation of pamphlet

texts about other peoples and about various aspects of international relations. This is only a partial listing, but it indicates the widespread effort among educators to obtain more adequate treatment of world affairs in the school program. Various citizen groups, such as the United States National Commission for UNESCO and the American Association for the United Nations, have been equally interested and active.

It has become increasingly clear that while it is essential to present adequate and accurate information about world affairs, this alone will not achieve the desired understandings, behaviors, and attitudes. The information must be taught in such a way that students see its importance in their own lives, so that they learn at the level of involvement rather than of verbal performance. A cumulative series of vivid, personalized experiences, through reading, films, or actual contact with representatives of other peoples or with activities of international organizations, is needed to develop true understanding.

There is no doubt that today's high school graduates, as a group, are better informed about world affairs than were those of earlier years. There remains, however, a serious question as to whether enough has yet been done to achieve the goal of an informed citizenry, willing and able to demand and sustain constructive foreign policies.

In the reappraisal of the social studies curriculum which seems to be developing, the social studies teacher will be called upon to evaluate the issues and trends to which this chapter furnishes an introduction. He should become thoroughly informed about each one through study of the Selected Readings below, and by following current discussions of them in *Social Education* and other professional literature.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLES

BAKER, DERWOOD. "Economic Education," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3d ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960, pp. 398-402.

A summary of developments in the field of economic education.

BROADHEAD, RUSSELL H., and BURNETT, LEWIE W. "Areas of Change and Controversy," in Ruth Ellsworth and Ole Sand (eds.), *Improving the Social Studies Curriculum*, Twenty-sixth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1955. 16-58.

A well-documented discussion of issues and trends in the social studies curriculum. A basic reference on this topic.

THE EVOLVING CURRICULUM

WILSON, HENRY K., and others. "An Objective Evaluation of a Core Program," *School Review*, 60 (February, 1952), 84-89.

Reports a study which found that core class students showed slight but consistently greater gains in information when compared with students in the conventional class, and marked improvement in study skills, effectiveness of expression, and growth of civic attitudes.

COMMISSION ON THE SOCIAL STUDIES OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES. "Education and the Future," *National Education Association Journal*, 49 (January, 1960), 8-11.

A summary of the report of the Commission, in which societal changes that make a reappraisal of social studies programs imperative are discussed.

COONS, PAUL W. "Promoting Economic Literacy Through American History," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, 23 (March, 1950), 415-23.

Exemplifies a trend in social studies education, by urging more attention to economics in history courses. Suggests four functions of history in teaching economics, and identifies the marks of economic literacy.

DIMOND, STANLEY. "Citizenship Education," in *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3d ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960. 206-10.

Reviews the major projects and studies in citizenship education.

PAIR, JEAN. "The Comparative Effectiveness of a Core and a Conventional Curriculum in Developing Social Concern," *School Review*, 62 (May and June, 1954), 274-82, 346-53.

Reports a study which found no significant differences between core and conventional classes in development of an awareness of social conditions, ability to apply fact and value generalizations to social problems, and interest in social affairs. Core students developed slightly more willingness to take a democratic position on social policies.

FLANDERS, NED A. "English and Social Studies—or Core? Which for Better Basic Skills?" *School Review*, 66 (Autumn, 1958), 351-60.

Reports a study which found no significant differences between core and non-core students on reading and other language skills.

GROSS, RICHARD E. "Emerging Horizons for the Social Studies," *Social Education*, 24 (January, 1960), 21-24.

Describes experiments with scheduling, correlation of subjects, team-teaching, large classes, television, and use of master teachers. Urges creative thinking on use of teacher personnel and class programs.

GROSS, RICHARD E. "What's Wrong with American History?" *Social Education*, 16 (April, 1952), 157-61.

Describes results of a California survey of the organization, methods, and teaching materials used by American history teachers. Identifies sources of dissatisfaction with American history courses.

BOOKS

ANDERSON, HOWARD (ed.). *Approaches to an Understanding of World Affairs*, Twenty-fifth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1954.

Combines chapters which analyze areas of the world with chapters which suggest ways of teaching world affairs. The chapter on "Developing International Understanding in the Secondary School" presents many useful activities.

The summary volume of the Detroit Citizenship Education Study. Describes the plan used in collecting information and presents findings and conclusions.

TABA, HILDA; BRADY, ELIZABETH H.; and ROBINSON, JOHN T. *Inter-Group Education in Public Schools*. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1952.

Describes experimental projects developed under the auspices of the staff of the Committee on Intergroup Education in Cooperating Schools. Reports work on curriculum development, improving group life in schools, and school-community projects.

VINCENT, WILLIAM S., and others. *Building Better Programs in Citizenship*. New York: Citizenship Education Project, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.

Identifies goals, describes a program of laboratory practices and materials developed by the project, and shows how laboratory practices can be used in typical courses.

WEST, EDITH (ed.). *Improving the Teaching of World History*, Twentieth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1949.

Chapter 4 identifies criticisms of world history offerings, and Chapter 11 advocates two-year sequences in order to avoid superficial learning.

What Should the High Schools Teach? 1956 Yearbook of the American Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1956.

Chapter 5 presents arguments for and against integrative and subject matter courses. Pages 187-90 deal with the organization of social studies courses.

Part VI

IN-SERVICE GROWTH

THE BEGINNING TEACHER

Each fall, thousands of beginning teachers enter classrooms to start work in their chosen profession. Between September and June, they find moments of success and satisfaction and encounter difficulties and discouragements. There are some problems that most beginners face, regardless of the field in which they are teaching. Maintaining satisfactory standards of classroom conduct, or the discipline problem, for example, is a general concern with first-year teachers. Suggestions for dealing with this problem are much the same regardless of the subject taught. Other problems arise that are more directly related to the teaching field. Thus the beginning social studies teacher has problems of planning and locating learning materials that are different in specifics if not in principle from those of the teacher of French or biology. Problems of the first category, those encountered by beginners in every field, have been treated at length in discussion of general methods of teaching in secondary schools or in specialized pamphlets and periodical articles. The beginning social studies teacher will profit from reading some of these, the ones noted at the end of the chapter.

This chapter is devoted to some of the problems that beginning social studies teachers face because they are teaching social studies, and to suggestions for dealing with them successfully.

PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS

When a number of first-year social studies teachers were asked what problems they had met in their first months of teaching, they responded with comments such as these:

I teach eighth-grade social studies. One of my basic problems is gearing the work to the students' level so that they can understand the prob-

lems of early American history along the lines of their own experiences. I think that much of the work in the early part of the term was completely over their heads.

One of my problems is that of getting the whole class interested enough in the work to have wide participation. There are usually only a few who are active participants.

I have trouble judging how much students can do in a class period. Sometimes my plan for one day would keep them busy for a week. I find that my plans work better when I begin by listing two or three things to emphasize. That helps me keep the plan focused.

At first I thought my chief problem was learning to use techniques that I had read about, such as using committees in teaching current events. Then I decided that I should first be clear on why one should teach current events. I have found that when I am clear on why I am teaching something, it is easier to choose techniques that will work.

I teach in a school where students get very excited about grades. One of my problems has been how to prove to my students that my grades were fair and, for that matter, to be sure myself that they were. When I had to give out the first grades last fall, I found I didn't have much to grade on except a couple of tests.

Time is my problem. There is never enough of it to make plans, do the reading I need to do, find materials for students to use, make tests, and read students' papers. I have four different preparations, one of them for a science class.

These problems of first-year teachers are typical of those encountered by beginning social studies teachers. They are problems involving clear identification of goals, knowledge of students, selection of materials and content appropriate to the particular students, and organization of classwork so that students will find it learnable and worth learning. The beginner can take a number of steps to avoid or minimize these problems.

PRESCHOOL PLANNING

As soon as possible after he obtains a position, the social studies teacher should begin to learn about the school in which he will teach and the community in which it is located. His preplanning for the school year can then be done within a realistic framework.

Getting an overview of the community is important for any teacher going into a new position. It is especially important that a social studies teacher obtain information about such features of the community as its economic life, its political structure, its history, its cultural activities, and the composition of its population. This information will be invaluable to him in adapting his social studies instruction to local conditions and needs, as well as in understanding the young people with whom he is to work. In his search for

such information he may turn first to standard references such as Webster's *Geographical Dictionary* and to a state history or state guide. More current material may be available from the state or local chamber of commerce or from the school system itself. If the community is nearby, the teacher can supplement his knowledge of it by observation. In any case, he can subscribe to and read the local newspaper, thus getting some picture of the current scene in which he will be working.

The school in which the new teacher is to work may have developed its own curriculum plan, or it may follow that recommended by the state. The teacher should obtain a copy of the plan in use and examine it to become familiar with the total social studies program and with the general plans for other subject areas that his pupils will be studying. This will give him a framework within which to consider the specific courses he will teach, so that he can provide for both vertical and horizontal articulation of instruction. For obvious reasons, he should study with especial care both the curriculum plans and the basic text materials for the courses he will teach.

If the teacher finds that topics about which he is poorly informed are included in the courses he is to teach, and most beginning social studies teachers will discover at least a few, he must lay out a study program covering them. He should plan this study realistically so as to give some attention to each of the major topics. To spend all his time on those that come early in the year, leaving the others to "catch up on as he goes along," would be a mistake. He needs some familiarity with the total content in order to make a general plan for the year's work. In addition, the beginner will find little time to develop basic background knowledge during his first year of teaching. His time will be fully occupied with the demands of daily preparation—developing detailed plans, seeking enrichment materials, reading and criticizing student papers, and so on—and with other responsibilities in the school, such as sponsoring a student activity or serving on a faculty committee.

Before the social studies teacher faces his first classes, he should have developed a general plan for the year's work in each. He should decide on the internal organization of the course, whether it is to be organized around problems, topics, chronological periods, or a combination of these. Each block of work should be sketched out roughly, with approximate time allotments. Even though he modifies this over-all plan during the year, as he is certain to do, the teacher needs to have it in mind as he plans specific units.

Having such a skeleton plan will facilitate, not hamper, his use of teacher-pupil planning and of the variety of procedures that he will need to employ through the year.

DEVELOPING RESOURCE FILES

In connection with his preplanning, the new social studies teacher should locate resource units and other materials for each part of each course he will handle. If he has not already done so as part of his professional course work, he should begin to build his resource files. As a minimum these should include a picture and map file, a file of exercise and test items, a file of references, films, readings, and other learning materials, and a file of resource and teaching units.

The first step in developing usable resource files is to decide on a general organization for them, one that will enable the teacher to locate materials quickly when he needs them for planning a unit, preparing a bulletin board or a particular lesson, developing a study exercise, or constructing a test. At first he will find that a few general headings are most useful. The portions of the files devoted to United States history materials, for example, might be organized by chronological periods: Colonial, to 1763; Revolutionary and Constitutional, to 1789; Early National, to 1830; and so on. Or a combination of chronological and topical headings might be used. As the resource files are developed, a more elaborate system of headings and cross reference will be needed. Each teacher needs to work out his own system to fit his particular situation. Probably he will find it efficient to use the same set of headings for the picture file, the test file, and other resource files that he may develop.

Picture and map files can be built up by systematic clipping of news magazines, newspapers, and worn-out pamphlets and textbooks, as well as by purchase of materials. Standard- or legal-sized file folders provide suitable receptacles for the clipped materials. The legal-sized folders are preferable if filing cabinets of that size are available. If no filing cabinets are available, the teacher may wish to use standard-sized folders which can be placed in makeshift files consisting of orange crates. Suggestions for mounting and using pictures and other graphics in the classroom are given in the Selected Readings for Chapter 19.

Most teachers find a card file the most useful form in which to collect items for tests and study exercises. Each item is placed on a separate card, which can be pulled from the file when an exercise

or test is being constructed, and then refiled. Data about the difficulty of the item can be added to the back of the card each time the item is used.

A card file is also a useful form in which to collect data about reading references, films, filmstrips, and other learning materials. Some teachers, however, prefer to use file folders so that unit plans and entire reading lists may be filed conveniently with the references to other learning materials.

The beginning teacher will find that well-developed resource files simplify his planning and enrich his class teaching. If he has not had opportunity to build such files in advance, he should not feel discouraged. By setting up a filing plan and gathering materials systematically he will soon have the basis for a useful collection. In later years, the teacher will continually add fresh materials and weed out those which become worn or outdated.

LEARNING ABOUT THE SCHOOL

Many schools today provide a preschool orientation conference for teachers, particularly for those who are entering the system for the first time. New teachers are given opportunity to become acquainted with the school and its routines—how to record and report attendance, when and how to requisition materials, and so on. The social studies teacher needs this essential information, of course. In addition, he must become acquainted with the special resources he will need to draw upon and the school policies concerning their use. More specifically, he must get answers to such questions as these:

1. What are the procedures to be followed in using the school library in various ways: checking out books for classroom use, arranging for a reserve shelf in the library, sending students to the library to carry on research projects, and so on?
2. What maps, globes, and other display materials are available, and how are they obtained for classroom use?
3. What films and other audio-visual materials are available, and what are the procedures to be followed in ordering and using them? Are operators provided, or must the teacher operate the audio-visual machines himself?
4. Is there in the school a file of community resources? If so, what are the procedures for using it?
5. What are the school's policies concerning field trips, out-of-school interviews by students, guest speakers, and other procedures for using community resources?

6. What student personnel records are available, and what are the procedures for using them?
7. Who are the senior members of the social studies staff to whom the newcomer should turn for help with questions that may arise?

If there is no preschool conference, the beginner should make inquiry about such points as these as soon as an opportunity occurs.

During the first weeks of school, or during the preschool conference if possible, the teacher should put this new information to use. For example, he should make a survey of the library to learn what books are available for the reading program in each of his classes. He should study personnel records to prepare summaries of basic data concerning each of his classes, on such points as range of reading scores and intelligence quotients, and to identify students with unique problems. Intensive work along these lines before the opening of school or during the first weeks will pay dividends throughout the school year.

THE FIRST CLASSES

Even though the new teacher has spent many hours in preparation and has attended preschool conferences, he usually feels that he is beginning his career when he meets his classes for the first time. Knowing that the first impression is important, he is eager to make a good one. There is no set recipe for a successful first class, but there are some approaches that experienced teachers have found useful and some cautions that beginners will do well to consider.

There are usually some routine jobs to be accomplished at the first class meeting, though exactly what they are will vary from school to school. Textbooks may be distributed, students' schedule cards checked, seats assigned, and so on. The routines must be taken care of, but it is important also to make some beginning with the class's work for the year. Some attention, however brief, may be given to reasons for studying the topics that are to be included and to the values that each student can gain from his social studies work. There may be time for a quick overview of the year's work and an introduction to some of the basic materials that will be used, or perhaps a short pretest on some aspects of the year's work or a brief current events quiz may be given and discussed. A carefully planned assignment should be given, one that is interesting, clearly stated, and reasonable in length, and which can

be followed up through class activity the next day. For most students interest is high on the first day, probably as high as it will be except as it is stimulated by the on-going work of the class. Most young people return to school each year with good resolutions, and they find it anticlimactic if their first opportunity to demonstrate these resolutions is postponed.

The beginning teacher will, of course, plan the first day's work in detail. As he thinks through the routine tasks to be done he should try to anticipate those which might invite disorder and decide exactly how each step will be handled to hold confusion to a minimum. He should work out the exact wording of instructions so that they can be given in clear, concise terms. However, he should not be dependent on written notes while giving them. The teacher will try to time his plan realistically, but he should have activities in reserve to use if the work moves more rapidly than he expected. He should plan such activities as specifically as the main part of the day's work. From the first day he will strive for variety in class procedures, but he will avoid overly complicated plans for the first days, plans in which too many things to do may confuse the students.

THE FIRST WEEKS

The second and third days and the second and third weeks are still "first days." Classroom routines, ways of working, and standards of performance are being established. The same detailed planning that was done for the first class session is needed.

During this crucial period, the beginning teacher should maintain a pleasant and friendly manner, but avoid undue informality in relationships with students within or outside the classroom. It is difficult to move from informality to a more formal relationship, as many beginners have learned too late. It is easy to move from formality to a less formal manner once basic routines and acceptable relationships have been established. The beginning teacher should speak and act with assurance based on his careful preparation. He should avoid a dogmatic manner, however, or a pretence to more experience than he obviously could have had. Students are likely to accept a dogmatic manner as a challenge to which they may react with insubordinate behavior. They are also usually quick to learn exactly what experience the new teacher has had and to expose any false claims.

Another caution for beginning social studies teachers is related

to written assignments. The first written assignment may well be given within the first week or two. It should be reasonable in length and related clearly to the current work of the class. The criteria by which it is to be marked should be definitely established, with such questions as whether grammar and spelling will "count" settled at the time the assignment is made. The teacher should read the papers carefully. He should make marginal notations on every paper, giving constructive criticisms along with recognition of work well done. He should return the papers promptly, the next day if possible, and discuss them with the class. In this way students will be helped to comprehend the standards which will prevail through the year. They will also be assured that this teacher actually reads their papers, gives help through his comments, and recognizes merit where it is present.

If written assignments are to be used properly, the social studies teacher must space them so that he has time available to deal with the papers promptly and carefully. He should plan so that only one class hands in papers on a given day. He will set up each assignment so that it serves more than one purpose. He will not use a written assignment as busy work, nor as a punitive measure. The teacher can avoid giving more written assignments than he can handle if he schedules his own time efficiently and plans each assignment thoughtfully.

FIRST MARKING PERIOD. Many a beginning social studies teacher approaches the first marking period with uncertainty, even trepidation. He must give a summary evaluation of the work of students, many of whom he feels he is just coming to know. He is uncomfortably aware that grades are given great importance by many students and parents. He is likely to be concerned about such questions as these: How can he insure fairness in his grading? How will individual students react to their grades? How will parents react? How will class morale be affected? His problem is intensified by the fact that pupils themselves often have a less definite knowledge of their progress in social studies than in other fields such as mathematics or foreign language, where goals are often narrower and daily success or failure more specifically defined than in social studies.

The beginning social studies teacher can approach his first marking period with confidence, however, if he has made specific applications of modern principles of evaluation from the first days of the term. If he has defined the purposes of assignments and classwork definitely, both to himself and to students, the achievement of each student is measured more accurately. If there have

been several interim evaluations of individual student work, each reported to the students and discussed with them, there can be no great surprises at marking time. Some social studies teachers, indeed, give each student a sheet recapitulating his records for the term at the time the periodic evaluation is sent home to parents. If the teacher has offered opportunities for remedial work during the term, students earning poor grades will have little basis for resentment. Finally, if the teacher has studied the personnel records of his students early in the term, he has some picture of the strengths and weaknesses of each. He is able, within the framework of school policies concerning marks, to evaluate individual progress more realistically than if he acts without adequate knowledge of the student.

Each beginning social studies teacher discovers, as the year moves along, his own particular problems and areas of success. The teacher creates his own successes, and he must work through his problems as they arise. But he need not work at them alone, for help is constantly at hand. Supervisors, more experienced colleagues, and former college instructors usually can and are eager to give assistance as it is needed. The critical factor in the success of the beginning social studies teacher, assuming a generally adequate background, is his continuing effort to define his own problems and seek satisfactory solutions for them.

SELECTED READINGS

ARTICLE

WHITE, ELIZABETH S. "Tips for the Beginning English Teacher," *The English Journal*, 47 (September, 1958), 349-53.

A storehouse of suggestions on organizing a class, pitfalls to avoid, and self-evaluation. Only a few of the ideas are inapplicable for the beginning social studies teacher.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

First-Year Teachers in 1954-55, National Education Association Research Bulletin, Vol. 34 No. 1. Washington, D.C.: The Association, 1958. Pp. 47.

Reports a study made in towns of 2500 or more population. The findings on selection and appointment, social factors, and problems of first-year teachers should prove interesting reading for the prospective teacher.

GRAMBS, JEAN D.; IVERSON, WILLIAM J.; and PATTERSON, FRANKLIN K. *Modern Methods in Secondary Education*, rev. ed. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1958.

Contains helpful discussion of types of discipline problems, with examples of poor and good ways of handling them.

SHEVIAKOV, GEORGE V., and REDL, FRITZ. *Discipline for Today's Children and Youth*, rev. ed. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1951.

Includes a general discussion of principles plus specific suggestions for application of principles in the classroom. Uses many illustrative case studies.

WIGGINS, SAM P. *Successful High School Teaching*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1958.

Chapter 7, "Classroom Management for Better Learning," provides suggestions for preventing discipline problems and promoting a good classroom atmosphere for learning. Chapter 11 differentiates between junior and senior high school classes. Down-to-earth treatment.

GROWTH OF THE TEACHER

Each year most of the students in Mr. Warner's classes consider themselves fortunate, and they are. Mr. Warner has been teaching social studies for ten years. He was well prepared, and was an effective teacher from the beginning although he encountered his share of first-year difficulties. He has moved from one teaching position to another three times, each time with an improvement in salary and teaching conditions. Now at the age of 33 he feels he is located in the community where he expects to stay, and the people of the community share his expectation. Some of the younger ones have been his pupils; they respect him for his knowledge, his integrity, and his clear thinking. They remember his classes for the exciting discussions, the new horizons that were opened to them, and the standards of work and cooperation that were set. Many of them remember having been part of "something new" that he was trying, a different way of organizing the class, for example, or a comparison of various study materials. Other people know Mr. Warner as a civic-minded member of the community; they have found him to be level-headed and energetic in community activities. The school's administrators consider him to be an asset to the school. They welcome his active participation in social studies teachers' organizations, and feel a reflected credit when he publishes an article in a professional journal. They call on him from time to time to help with curriculum planning and other aspects of policy-making for the school. To even the casual observer it is clear that Mr. Warner has "grown on the job," and is continuing to do so.

The future holds interesting possibilities for Mr. Warner. He may choose to devote his professional life to classroom teaching.

He may decide to enter teacher education and help young people prepare for social studies teaching. He may become a supervisor or a curriculum consultant in the school system. He may combine classroom teaching with one of these other activities, or with the preparation of social studies learning materials—books, pamphlets, films, and so on. He will have such opportunities because he is professionally and intellectually alive.

Many Mr. Warners (or Miss or Mrs. Warners) teach social studies in secondary schools today. These teachers are of various ages and they differ in backgrounds of experience and personality, but they have some traits in common. Already well-informed, they are continually broadening their own knowledge of society, past and present. They are continually searching for fresh, improved ways of helping young people learn. In the process they are gaining in personal maturity and professional effectiveness. They are achieving their growth through a variety of means. No two follow exactly the very same pattern. This chapter suggests some of the patterns they follow, patterns for professional growth that are available to all social studies teachers.

GRADUATE STUDY

Probably the most conventional means to professional improvement, and certainly a basic one, is advanced study at a college or university. Every social studies teacher should have at least a year of graduate study in order to approach basic competence in the social sciences and in his professional field. There is not enough time in the four undergraduate years to develop the needed background. This fact is recognized in the accelerating trend of requiring a fifth year of study for permanent certification for secondary school teaching.

Graduate courses may be taken as part of a program for a master's or a doctor's degree, or on a non-matriculated (that is, separate course) basis. At least until the master's degree is earned, it is advisable for a social studies teacher to do most of his advanced study within a degree program. Such a program offers a coherent, integrated plan of study as opposed to a haphazard series of courses. The degree, when awarded, is recognized as a mark of professional competence. Holding an advanced degree is rewarded in many school systems by a special increment that can be earned in no other way. More and more secondary school social studies teachers are earning doctorates. Indeed, for those who plan eventually to enter one of the more specialized aspects of

social studies education, the doctorate is increasingly necessary. Some teachers wish to go beyond the master's degree in their graduate study but find it undesirable or impossible to work for a doctorate. They will find that an increasing number of colleges and universities are offering programs of study leading to advanced certificates, requiring from 15 to 30 credits beyond the master's degree.

Should the social studies teacher take his advanced degrees in a social science field or in the field of professional education? That question must be answered in terms of each individual's situation. He must consider his background of previous study and his eventual goals. He must learn the requirements for each degree in the institutions available to him. He will probably find great variation, from one institution to another, in the requirements for the same degree. This is especially true of degrees in professional education. The master of arts or master of science in education for social studies teachers furnishes an example. In some institutions most of the work must be in professional courses; in others from one-half to two-thirds of the courses must be in social sciences. In some universities the master of arts in a social science field—history or political science, for example—must be earned almost entirely within that field; in others a distribution of courses in other social sciences and in professional education is permitted. The same kinds of variations exist from one institution to another in programs leading to the doctorate in one of the social sciences or in professional education. The social studies teacher can choose his degree program wisely only after he has discovered the exact plan of each one available to him and weighed each plan in terms of his own interests and needs. Most teachers, in order to gain a well-rounded background, should choose a degree that permits study both in the social sciences and in professional education.

Some social studies teachers have preferred not to pursue a degree program beyond the master's level. Instead they take individual courses on a non-matriculated basis, courses which they consider most suitable for their own purposes. A teacher can use this plan effectively to repair omissions in basic preparation and to keep abreast of recent scholarship in the social science and professional fields. To do so, he must make a careful analysis of his needs and seek courses that will meet them. One disadvantage of taking graduate courses on this basis is that some institutions admit non-matriculants to designated courses only and limit the total number of credits they may take as non-matriculants. Another is that colleges and universities usually assume no responsibility

for advising non-matriculants in their selection of courses or on other professional questions.

WORKSHOPS

The workshop is a relatively new form of advanced study for teachers. Its essential characteristic is that its participants select specific problems related to their teaching and work to solve them, rather than studying a systematically organized course. A workshop may be held under *one of several auspices*. Many graduate schools of education sponsor workshops in which participants may earn graduate credit. Local school systems sometimes sponsor workshops in which selected teams of teachers do curriculum planning, build resource units, or develop learning materials of various kinds. State departments of education have used workshops in curriculum planning. Professional organizations sometimes sponsor workshops, often in cooperation with a graduate school or a local school system.

Participation in a workshop can be extremely rewarding for a social studies teacher if certain conditions prevail. The teacher must be able to identify a problem that is significant to his teaching and set up plans for working on it. An adequate collection of materials—books, films, evaluation instruments, and so on—must be available, along with appropriate consultants. The summer workshop offers opportunity for planning ahead, developing learning materials and evaluation instruments, building resource units, and making other long-range preparations for teaching during the coming year. The profit a teacher gains from a workshop is usually in direct proportion to the degree of maturity and self-direction he has achieved.

A READING PROGRAM

Graduate study or participation in a workshop may be unavailable to many social studies teachers except at particular times. Every teacher has access at all times to reading as a means of professional growth. To use reading effectively for this purpose, however, the teacher must plan a systematic program. He must set aside a reasonable amount of time for it, week by week. He must plan the content of his reading, seeking a balance between the social sciences and the professional field, and between current materials and basic treatises that he has not yet had opportunity to study. Much of his reading will probably be related to his teaching, but some may profitably be devoted to expanding his

own knowledge of current affairs, the social sciences, and the foundational disciplines of professional education in general.

Planning an effective reading program is a highly individual matter. Each teacher must examine his own background, current needs, and continuing interests, and then make his plan. The general outline of an adequate reading program can, however, be established.

Every social studies teacher should read *Social Education* regularly. This journal, published by the National Council for the Social Studies, appears monthly from October through May. It includes articles presenting recent interpretations of selected social science topics, specific discussions of problems and methods in social studies teaching, and information about recent learning materials, as well as news of general developments in the social studies field. The *Journal of Geography*, sponsored by the National Council for Geographic Education, renders a comparable service for the teaching of geography and has value for all social studies teachers.

The social studies teacher, along with teachers in other fields, should read the *NEA Journal*, and the publication of his state education organization. Only by so doing can he get an over-all view of trends and developments in public education at all levels. There are other professional journals of general coverage that the social studies teacher can follow with profit on a sampling basis. They include such journals as *Educational Leadership*, the *School Review*, the *Elementary School Journal*, *Clearing House*, the *Journal of Education*, and *School and Society*. The *Education Digest*, as its name implies, provides abridged versions of articles chosen from the entire range of current professional literature. It is a useful means of getting a bird's-eye view of current professional periodicals.

The yearbooks of the National Council for the Social Studies, which have been cited throughout this volume, provide authoritative treatments of major topics related to social studies teaching. To maintain his professional literacy the social studies teacher must become familiar with each one as it comes from the press. Other yearbook series that often contain volumes of interest to the social studies teacher are those of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, the National Society for the Study of Education, and the American Association of School Administrators.

A valuable series of pamphlets is published by the Service Center for Teachers of History, maintained by the American Historical Association. Each pamphlet reviews recent interpretations concerning a particular period or aspect of history and suggests basic

reading on the topic. A list of those now available is given in the Selected Readings. New titles are published at intervals. The teacher can subscribe to the series on a continuing basis or can order individual pamphlets, which are announced in *Social Education* as they appear.

The social studies teacher should follow the journal of the social science field in which he has a special interest. The leading ones include *The American Historical Review*, *The Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, *The Geographic Review*, *The American Economic Review*, *The American Political Science Review*, *The Sociological Review*, and *The American Anthropologist*. Most of these scholarly journals appear quarterly. They differ from one another in format and emphasis, but each provides some coverage of recent developments in its field as well as book notes that will lead the teacher to important current studies in the field. An invaluable social science journal is *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, each issue of which is devoted to a selected topic such as "The Future of Our Natural Resources." The book-review section of this journal covers all the social sciences.

To be generally well informed about current affairs, the social studies teacher should consistently read a daily newspaper with adequate standards of coverage and reliability. He should also read at least one journal of opinion. Since time limitations will probably make it impossible for him to read more than one or two of the latter, the social studies teacher will find it helpful to sample different ones from month to month, or to change his subscription from one to another from year to year. To learn of new books as they appear, the social studies teacher should follow a general book-review publication such as the weekly book-review section of the *New York Times* or the *Saturday Review*.

A substantial part of the reading program should consist of selected books treating aspects of the social sciences and of professional education. Current volumes may be chosen on the basis of reviews in scholarly and professional journals, and of those in the general book review publications. For guidance in selecting older but standard works, Carr's *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers* is invaluable (see Selected Readings).

How extensive the social studies reading program can and should be will vary from person to person and from year to year in the life of any one person. When the teacher is carrying a heavy load of graduate study, workshop participation, or other professional activity beyond his regular teaching, he will have less time and less need for a broad independent reading program. In periods

when his chief effort for professional growth is made through a reading program, he might well read at least a dozen volumes a year, in addition to the basic reading of newspapers and magazines mentioned above. When a person undertakes social studies teaching he accepts a responsibility to be adequately informed in the broad areas of current affairs, the social sciences, and his professional field. The social studies teacher can fulfill this responsibility only through a continuing, systematic program of reading.

PLANNED TRAVEL

Travel has long been recognized as a means of enriching the individual's background of information about regions, nations, and peoples other than his own. The social studies teacher, by reason of the content with which he deals, stands to profit professionally as well as personally from travel experience. He should be able, by virtue of his preparation in the social sciences, to observe with greater penetration and understanding than the more typical traveler. He can learn directly about many aspects of social institutions and conditions through first-hand observation. He can enrich his knowledge of the history, the geography, and the economic and cultural life of each region he visits. He can visit museums and art galleries to study artifacts and art forms of various cultures. He can collect materials for use in the classroom. These advantages he can gain from travel, however, only if he plans in advance and approaches the experience as a thoughtful learner rather than as a sightseer or as a critic who judges all he sees by the standards of his own home town.

Fortunately modern technology has brought travel at home and abroad within reach of most social studies teachers. Indeed, teachers are one of the most traveled groups in the United States today. With a relatively small travel budget, an automobile, selected state guides or other references, and a systematic plan, a person can use week ends and vacations to become acquainted with his state, his region, and the various parts of the nation. Foreign travel usually requires a larger budget, planning further in advance, and more intensive preparation to observe intelligently. Tourist rates and group arrangements for reservations have reduced the required budget to an attainable sum. Other developments of recent years have simplified the problems of over-all planning and background preparation for teachers without foreign travel experience.

Foreign tours planned especially for teachers are carried on each

summer, many of them under the auspices of universities or professional organizations such as the National Education Association. The tours that are planned and directed by educators are usually preferable to commercially sponsored tours. Overly hurried schedules are avoided, and attention is given to experiences that will bring understanding of those social forces operating in an area. In most of the tours conducted by universities, a program of related study is part of the tour experience and participants may earn graduate credit. Similar directed tours through the various regions of the United States are also available each summer. Each year the teacher can get information about directed tours planned for the coming summer by writing to the Division of Travel Service of the National Education Association, and by watching for announcements of university-sponsored tours in professional journals.

For the teacher who wishes to spend a longer period of time in another country, and so gain a deeper understanding than can be achieved through summer travel, one of several roads is open. Since World War II an active program of exchange teachers, involving some eighteen countries, has been developed. Under this plan an American teacher exchanges positions for a year with a teacher from one of the other countries. Some 2,000 Americans have served as exchange teachers since the inception of this program. Another plan, the Fulbright program, provides for grants to qualified persons for foreign study and for certain types of educational assignments abroad. Study by Americans in foreign universities is encouraged by scholarships offered by a variety of sponsoring groups. Teachers who do not qualify for one of the opportunities mentioned thus far may wish to enroll for summer study in a foreign university. Specific information about teaching or studying abroad can be obtained from the following sources: the National Education Association, Washington, D.C.; the United States Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C.; and the Institute of International Education, New York, N.Y.

Many social studies teachers systematically use their travel as a means of expanding their collections of learning materials. One teacher, for example, has developed an extensive collection of photographic slides taken in the course of many trips. Historic sites, industrial plants, housing developments, agricultural scenes, physiographic features, and many examples of conditions in various parts of the country are included in the collection. The pictures have been taken with instructional purposes in mind—the illustration of geographic concepts, for example, or comparisons of agri-

cultural methods and conservation problems in different regions. Another teacher, lacking photographic skill and equipment, has collected pictures, prints, and postcards. These items are carefully selected to avoid stereotypes about the regions visited and to illustrate conditions and aspects of living in each one. Other teachers have collected selected articles used in everyday life by people of the region or land visited—children's toys, hats, shoes, small items of household furnishing, or recipes for favorite foods. The teacher must avoid, of course, using such materials to present a mere travelogue. But if they are chosen and used appropriately, such materials can help students gain deeper insights into social studies concepts and develop a sense of acquaintance and familiarity with other cultures.

RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION

The social studies teacher can increase his own competency by seeking to develop and utilize improved methods and materials of instruction. By publishing the results of his investigations, he can make important contributions to social studies education.

It has been customary to think of research as following a set pattern in which two or more randomized or equated groups are used to test a specific hypothesis. Procedures for the study are carefully worked out to provide the groups with experiences as nearly identical as possible, except for the single factor to be tested. The teacher who conducts a formal research project of this sort must be able to use statistical tools and conform to a rigorous pattern of procedures. Formal research has resulted in important discoveries about teaching and learning, and the need for it continues. The social studies teacher who has the necessary technical preparation can make important contributions by carrying on such research projects, and at the same time improve his own competence.

In recent years educators have developed other useful patterns for classroom investigations, besides that of controlled experimentation. Such action research, as it is frequently called, demands a plan of investigation based generally on the problem-solving process. The teacher must identify and define the problem he intends to study. He must clarify his objectives in studying it and state his hypothesis or hypotheses concerning the problem. After summarizing evidence already available, the teacher will develop a plan for collecting additional evidence. He will survey potential sources of information, decide what records he needs to keep and

what measures he can use to evaluate his progress in studying the problem. Finally, his plan will indicate how he intends to apply and test his conclusions. As the teacher proceeds with his investigation, he may need to readjust his plan in the light of information that he uncovers or conditions that develop.

The social studies teacher conducting informal research may wish to consider how to:

1. Use literature in social studies classes as a means of deepening social understandings
2. Use test items in direct instruction
3. Study the effect of world history study on student attitudes toward Russia (or another leading nation, or the United Nations)
4. Improve students' ability to read social studies materials (or another aspect of skill development)
5. Expand students' understanding of selected geographic concepts (or other selected concepts)
6. Use home viewing of television in a program of current affairs study
7. Develop critical thinking skills through use of slanted materials
8. Develop teacher-pupil planning with students who have had little experience in it
9. Encourage pupil participation in locating, selecting, and evaluating learning materials

Research studies such as these require the teacher to apply and test generally accepted principles of social studies instruction. The teacher himself can profit from such studies by improving and refining his specific teaching techniques. His experience may throw new light on the principles themselves, raising questions about them or suggesting modifications of them. By publishing an account of his investigation and the conclusions drawn from it, the teacher may give others new ideas about their own procedures and about the principles involved.

Other useful research problems involve surveys and analyses such as these:

Student opinion concerning an important recent event

Student attitudes concerning selected social issues, or toward particular groups

Parent attitudes concerning selected social issues and comparison of parent and student attitudes toward these issues.

Students' out-of-school activities

Student attitudes toward social studies

Treatment of selected topics in text materials

Readability level of text materials used by a class

Community resources hitherto uncatalogued

Films and filmstrips useful in teaching world history (or another subject) to slow learners

Student use of group discussion techniques in out-of-school situations

The social studies teacher who conducts a survey of student opinion or of a particular type of learning materials should consider seriously his obligation to publish the results. In some projects, such as the survey of films useful with slow learners, the information he has gathered may be directly useful to other teachers. In others, such as a survey of the attitudes of students and their parents toward selected topics, the procedures employed and the use made of results may suggest a fresh teaching activity to other teachers.

Sometimes teachers hesitate to offer material for publication because they are uncertain about where to submit it or are dubious about its value for others. The editors of periodicals such as *Social Education*, *The Social Studies*, *Clearing House*, and *The School Review* are constantly searching for accounts of projects teachers have carried on that throw light on methods or materials for social studies teaching. By examining such journals the teacher can discover the nature and length of articles appearing in each and choose the magazine for which his article seems most appropriate. He should submit it to the editor, indicating his willingness to rework it in line with the editor's suggestions. If the article is accepted the teacher should feel encouraged to report other projects; if not, he may receive advice that will help him in carrying out other informal research projects and preparing the results for publication.

PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL STUDIES ORGANIZATIONS

A sixth and one of the most effective means of professional growth is work in professional organizations of social studies teachers. Such organizations work at the local, state, regional, and national levels. Those at each level offer their particular opportunities and services to the social studies teacher. Every social studies teacher can and should be an active member of his local, state, and national group. Only in this way can he be continuously in the mainstream of educational developments affecting his teaching field.

The National Council for the Social Studies is the only national organization devoting its full effort to the improvement of social

studies programs and of social studies teaching. It was organized in 1921 and became affiliated with the National Education Association as a department in 1925. Today it offers many helps to its members. It acts as a clearinghouse for information and ideas about social studies education. The services of its officers and headquarters staff are available to local and state groups of social studies teachers, and to individual members with particular problems. The National Council also gives its members many opportunities for growth through service to their profession.

The publications program of the National Council for the Social Studies includes the journal, *Social Education*, a yearbook series in which a new number appears annually, a curriculum series, a bulletin series, a series of "How To Do It" leaflets, and other occasional publications. The importance of the Council's publications to social studies education is indicated by the number of references to them through this and similar volumes. *Social Education* and the current yearbook go to every regular member of the Council. Contributing members, who pay somewhat higher dues, receive a copy of every publication that is issued.

Each Thanksgiving the National Council holds a three-day annual meeting, at which new developments and current problems in social studies education are discussed. This convention moves, from one year to another, to various parts of the nation so that a maximum number of members may participate over a period of years. The National Council also sponsors joint sessions in the conventions of the social science organizations, such as the American Historical Association and the American Political Science Association.

Much of the work of the Council is done through standing committees, such as those on Academic Freedom, Audio-visual Aids, Curriculum, and International Education. Ad hoc committees, such as those on conservation, safety education, and citizenship education, are set up from time to time to study specific problems or aspects of social studies education. Results of committee work may be published in *Social Education* or in a bulletin or yearbook. In some cases they are presented in sessions at the Annual Meeting, or distributed there in mimeographed form.

Every member of the National Council for the Social Studies is urged to participate in its work and many do. Each year more than 100 social studies teachers serve on committees of the Council. From 200 to 250 members appear each year on the program of the Annual Meeting as speakers, resource persons, and so on. From 1,500 to 2,000 participate in the various sessions of the Annual

Meeting. It is estimated that at least 1,500 members have contributed as authors to the Council's publication program during the past decade, and many more have criticized manuscripts, suggested ideas, and helped in other ways.

Local, state, and regional social studies organizations carry on many of the same activities as the National Council. Each one holds regular meetings for the exchange of information and views about social studies instruction. Most of the state and regional groups publish a bulletin in which articles, book reviews, and news of the organization's activities appear. Some of them, particularly the regional groups, publish yearbooks. Various local and state organizations have, from time to time, sponsored workshops, conducted in-service courses for members, cooperated with state departments of education in curriculum planning, and developed resource units suitable for use within the state. Some of these groups have prepared learning materials concerned with local history and features of the contemporary local scene. Thus they perform unique and valuable services for social studies instruction in their areas and offer unique opportunities for social studies teachers to work on their immediate problems.

Teachers who need information about the social studies organizations in their own state and region may obtain it from the Executive Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D.C.

SERVICE TO COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL

Participation in civic affairs through such activities as jury service, membership in civic groups, service on local governmental bodies, and holding public office is the responsibility of every citizen. Through such participation the social studies teacher can expand his own understanding of governmental processes and problems. He can learn of community resources as yet untapped for instructional purposes. He can build community understanding of the school's work, especially of the social studies program. Teachers as a group have a better record of voting in elections than other sectors of the population. Available evidence indicates, however, that they are not accepting the responsibilities and opportunities of other types of civic action. The social studies teacher is an appropriate person to lead the way; in so doing he can grow in professional competence.

Within the school itself the social studies teacher will find many opportunities for self-development through service related to his

own teaching field. He can contribute and gain simultaneously by working on such faculty committees as those concerned with curriculum planning, reporting to parents, school-community relations, or in-service programs of study. He can participate constructively in meetings of his own department by volunteering his share of leadership in discussion sessions and perhaps by presenting an occasional book review or report on informal research he has conducted. If there is no formal departmental organization, he can stimulate informal discussion or study sessions for those concerned with social studies instruction. The alert social studies teacher can find many such opportunities and work through them for the improvement of his own work and that of his colleagues.

A social studies teacher cannot engage in all the activities suggested in this chapter—at least, not in all of them at one time. Some of them, such as a minimum reading program and membership in social studies organizations, are basic to professional competence. The social studies teacher should engage in these activities continuously. Beyond the basic minimum, he must select the activities that will meet his current needs and interests. These will change from year to year as he grows in professional stature and as his immediate situation changes. At intervals the social studies teacher must take stock of his own areas of strength and weakness, in order to plan wisely for his professional growth. He can use a self-inquiry checklist such as that given in Appendix D as a basis for his stock-taking and planning.

The social studies teacher's choice is to improve in professional competence or to retrogress—there is no standing still, for the world around is changing and today's best becomes second- or third-best tomorrow. This situation is not peculiar to social studies teaching, of course, but is found in every profession in today's dynamic world. It is a challenging, not a discouraging, situation. It is up to each social studies teacher to determine how he will meet the challenge.

SELECTED READINGS

PUBLICATIONS OF THE SERVICE CENTER FOR TEACHERS OF HISTORY

(American Historical Association, 400 A. Street, S.E., Washington 3, D.C.)

BIBLIOGRAPHIES FOR AMERICAN HISTORY

WRIGHT, LOUIS B. *New Interpretations of American Colonial History.*

MORGAN, EDMUND S. *The American Revolution, A Review of Changing Interpretations.*

- BILLINGTON, RAY A. *The American Frontier*.
 CARTER, HARVEY L. *The Far West in American History*.
 BRIDGES, HAL. *Civil War and Reconstruction*.
 SINGLETARY, OTIS A. *The South in American History*.
 STEVENS, HARRY R. *The Middle West*.
 MOWRY, GEORGE E. *The Progressive Movement 1900-1920: Recent Ideas and New Literature*.
 DECONDE, ALEXANDER. *New Interpretations in American Foreign Policy*.
 FREIDEL, FRANK. *The New Deal in Historical Perspective*.

BIBLIOGRAPHIES FOR WORLD HISTORY

- CHAMBERS, MORTIMER. *Greek and Roman History*.
 LYON, BRYCE. *The Middle Ages in Recent Historical Thought: Selected Topics*.
 BOUWSMA, WILLIAM. *The Interpretation of Renaissance Humanism*.
 IDZERDA, STANLEY J. *The Background of the French Revolution*.
 LAMPAUD, ERIC. *Industrial Revolution, Interpretations and Perspectives*.
 BOAS, MARIE. *History of Science*.
 SHAFER, BOYD C. *Nationalism: Interpreters and Interpretations*.
 GIBSON, CHARLES. *The Colonial Period in Latin American History*.
 WINKS, ROBIN W. *Recent Trends and New Literature in Canadian History*.
 DAVISON, RODERIC H. *The Near and Middle East: An Introduction to History and Bibliography*.
 HUCKER, CHARLES O. *Chinese History, A Bibliographic Review*.
 CRANE, ROBERT I. *The History of India, Its Study and Interpretation*.

OTHER PUBLICATIONS

- FAISSLER, MARGARETA. *Key to the Past: Some History Books for Pre-College Readers*.
 JORDAN, PHILIP D. *The Nature and Practice of State and Local History*.
 WARD, PAUL L. *A Style of History for Beginners*.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS

- ALEXANDER, C., and BURKE, A. J. *How to Locate Educational Information and Data*, 4th ed. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958.
 Describes and gives instructions for using many bibliographies, guides, reference works, government documents, and magazines.
- ALLEN, JACK (ed.). *The Teacher of the Social Studies*, Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The Council, 1952.
 Chapters 5-8 are devoted to "The Social Studies Teacher at Work," and include suggestions for in-service growth through community activities, graduate study, reading, travel, and work in professional organizations.
- BARR, ARVIL S.; DAVIS, ROBERT A.; and JOHNSON, PALMER O. *Educational Research and Appraisal*. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1953.
 Describes different methods of designing studies and techniques for collecting information.
- CARR, EDWIN R. *Guide to Reading for Social Studies Teachers*, Bulletin No. 26. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1951. Pp. 149.
 A selected list of important books and magazines in education and in each of the social sciences. Useful annotations.
- COREY, STEPHEN M. *Action Research to Improve School Practices*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.
 Argues that action research by teachers is an effective way of improving teaching.

LIEBERMAN, MYRON. *Education as a Profession*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956.

A stimulating analysis of issues such as joining professional organizations and unions, collective bargaining in education, and professional ethics.

TOOLS FOR KEEPING ABREAST OF NEW RESEARCH

HARRIS, CHESTER W. (ed.). *Encyclopedia of Educational Research*, 3d ed. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1960.

Contains articles describing research findings on many topics. Includes numerous citations of important research articles and theses. Revised every ten years under the sponsorship of the American Educational Research Association.

Dissertation Abstracts. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfilms, Inc.

A monthly publication containing abstracts of doctoral dissertations. Cites microfilm numbers for those wishing to order theses. A cumulative annual index helps in locating materials.

Journal of Educational Research. Madison, Wisconsin: Dembar Publications.

A monthly magazine containing abstracts of current research.

Review of Educational Research. Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

Published five times a year. Each issue is devoted to a single topic. Articles summarize recent research and cite research studies.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

SAMPLE RESOURCE UNIT: THE CIVIL WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION*

OBJECTIVES

This unit should make progress toward the development of the following:

UNDERSTANDINGS

1. The Civil War was a result of complex economic, social, and political pressures, not of any single cause.
2. Political parties attempt to compromise differences among sections of the country.
3. The supremacy of the national government was established in a long, costly war.
4. Periods of crisis sharply test political leadership and a constitutional form of government.
5. The influence of cultural continuity makes it difficult to effect abrupt changes in men's institutions.
6. Severe treatment of defeated peoples tends to arouse bitter and lasting feelings.
7. There are no easy solutions to social problems.

SKILLS AND ABILITIES

1. Evaluating sources of information.
2. Taking notes on reading.
3. Adjusting the rate and method of reading to material and purpose.
4. Presenting ideas orally.
5. Relating different types of phenomena among map patterns.
6. Using pivotal dates to understand time relationships among events.

* Developed by Genevieve P. Zito, University of Minnesota High School

ATTITUDES AND HABITS

1. An interest in history and historical materials.
2. The habit of evaluating sources of information.
3. A desire to understand other people's points of view.
4. Skepticism of easy solutions.

OUTLINE OF CONTENT

- I. The Civil War and its aftermath resulted in repercussions which are still felt today.
 - A. Many of today's civil rights problems date back to the Reconstruction period.
 - B. The Civil War and Reconstruction had marked effects upon our political parties.
 - C. The War and its aftermath left the South with serious economic problems, some of which have not yet been solved.
- II. There was no single cause of the Civil War; it resulted from complex political, economic, and social pressures.
 - A. The United States had not achieved national unity by 1860.
 1. The federal-state relationship remained unresolved.
 - a. The authority of the federal government had been challenged repeatedly since 1789.
 - b. Two divergent views of the constitutional relationship between the central government and the states developed.
 2. Economy and society varied in the North, the South, and the West.
 - a. Many and significant changes marked the life of the Northeast section.
 - (1) Economy was diversified.
 - (2) Society was mobile, changing, and growing.
 - b. Southern economy and society were relatively stable and static.
 - (1) The economy was dominated by the plantation system.
 - (a) The South was chiefly an exporting area for staples and an importing area for manufactured goods.
 - (b) Four million slaves (1860) provided the labor to run the large and small plantations.
 - (c) The majority of Southerners were not large planters.
 - (d) Although the South was essentially agricultural, small industry was profitable in strategic areas.
 - (2) The planter aristocracy controlled the social and political as well as the economic life of the South.
 - c. Frontier settlement was a dominant concern in this era.
 - (1) Extension into new lands was pushed by two conflicting groups: the small farmers and the larger planters.

- (a) The plantation system expanded through Louisiana, Texas, and Missouri.
 - (b) Small farming expanded beyond the Northwest Territory into the plains area.
 - (c) Improved modes of transportation spurred on settlement.
 - (d) As settlement increased, the clash between the conflicting groups became increasingly serious.
 - (2) The frontier gave men the chance to start anew and to build a new place in society.
 - (3) Religious and social reformers had a profound influence in the frontier area.
- B. The struggle between the North and the South for control of the central government developed from 1820-1860.
- 1. Until 1850 a balance of power was maintained.
 - a. Control of the West was determined by compromises.
 - (1) The Missouri Compromise applied to territory acquired from France in 1803.
 - (2) The desire for the annexation of Texas was matched by the acquisition of Oregon.
 - (3) The Compromise of 1850 was an attempt to solve the struggle for land acquired from Mexico.
 - b. Political parties attempted to compromise the sectional differences.
 - (1) The Democrats tried to please supporters by arranging platforms and candidates to cater to all sections.
 - (2) The Whigs, led by Clay, attempted to secure compromises which would satisfy both the Northern and Southern elements in the party.
 - 2. After 1850 compromise gave way step by step to bitter controversies and war.
 - a. The Compromise of 1850 proved unworkable. Agitation increased both in the North and in the South. Some Northern states refused to obey the fugitive slave law.
 - b. The Kansas-Nebraska Act broke the Missouri Compromise and reopened the issue for the Louisiana purchase area.
 - (1) Kansas became the site of armed clash between the slaveholders and the free-soilers.
 - (2) The Republican Party united Western and Northern groups against the Southerners' desire for extension of slavery in the territory.
 - (3) Propaganda by radicals on both sides increased.
 - c. The Supreme Court in the Dred Scott decision declared the Missouri Compromise void, and made slavery legal in the territories.
 - d. John Brown's raid encouraged more agitation on both sides.

- e. The election of 1860 created a crisis in politics.
- f. The Southern states seceded and established their own government.
- C. The causes of the war continue to be a fertile field for historical interpretation.
 - 1. Some historians have believed that slavery was the fundamental cause of the war.
 - 2. Some historians have emphasized economic rivalry between sections as the cause of the war.
 - 3. Some historians have presented a psychological interpretation and have concluded that the war was the result of blunders on both sides.
 - 4. Some historians have emphasized the states' rights or constitutional issue.
 - 5. *A number of historians have presented a broader political, economic, and social interpretation.*
- III. The supremacy of the national government was established in a long and costly war.
 - A. The strategy employed by the Blue and Gray forces was simple and direct.
 - 1. The federal forces launched an offensive war with a threefold plan of attack: blockade of Southern ports, division of the Southern heartland, and capture of the Southern capital.
 - 2. The South's strategy was mainly defensive, although the South did make attacks and raids into Union territory.
 - B. New kinds of warfare were introduced: ironclads, trenches, "total war," railroad raids, and so forth.
 - C. Problems behind the lines (such as finances, conscription, loyalty, diplomacy) increased as the war continued.
 - D. Superior Union resources and leadership led ultimately to the defeat of an exhausted South.
 - 1. The Union capitalized on its strengths.
 - a. Federal armies were manned and supplied by a growing industry, an expanding population, and an improved transportation system.
 - b. The Union used its official status to prevent European recognition of the Confederacy.
 - c. Lincoln exerted forceful and effective leadership in centralizing the Union war effort.
 - 2. The Confederacy overestimated its advantages and failed to unify its defense efforts.
 - a. European intervention was not forthcoming.
 - b. The upper border states as well as the Ohio Valley states remained loyal to the Union despite activities of Southern sympathizers.
 - c. Southern military forces, though ably led and trained, were poorly supplied, equipped, and coordinated.

d. Davis failed to convince states'-righters of the need for a centralized war effort.

E. The war was very costly in lives, property, and money.

IV. Periods of crisis sharply test political leadership and a constitutional form of government.

A. From 1850 to 1860, as the political parties were realigning, many politicians attempted to assume leadership.

B. Lincoln, faced with the secession crisis, actively engaged in the struggle to preserve the Union.

1. Lincoln exercised broad executive powers to organize and coordinate the war effort.

a. He used his "war powers" to justify executive assumption of congressional powers.

b. He made frequent use of executive decrees to facilitate mobilization of the Union's strength.

c. He often changed military leaders to guarantee success of the Union's attack.

d. He used strong measures to suppress anti-Union activity in the North.

2. As president, Lincoln realized the importance of his political position.

a. He used patronage to control and appease his party.

b. He signed into laws the aims of the party platform of 1860.

c. He evaluated the effects of the war on public opinion at home and abroad.

(1) The issuance of the Emancipation Proclamation was carefully timed.

(2) His bid for re-election in 1864 as a Union party candidate was successful despite many difficulties.

3. Lincoln kept a watchful eye on diplomacy to forestall European recognition of the Confederate government. He carefully weighed all diplomatic actions.

C. The need for security during the Civil War brought a challenge to civil liberties.

1. Lincoln suspended the writ of *habeas corpus* and authorized military trials in non-war areas.

2. A congressional investigating committee spurred on a government loyalty program.

3. Loyalty oaths were required and widespread both in the North and in the South.

D. Although the supremacy of the national government was established by the war, effective national leadership was not present in the postwar era.

1. Upon Lincoln's assassination, Johnson, a War Democrat from Tennessee, became president.

a. Johnson, attempting to carry through Lincoln's plans for

- reconstruction, did not receive the support of the radical Republicans in control of Congress.
- b. Bitter political controversy over reconstruction led to the attempted impeachment of Johnson.
2. The two-party system did not operate effectively in the Reconstruction period.
 - a. The Democratic party, discredited by the war, was not able to compete successfully on a national level.
 - b. The radical Republicans tried to prevent the resurgence of the Democratic party in the South through the Negro vote.
 - c. The rise of political bosses increased and political corruption was rampant on all levels of government.
- V. The federal government failed in its efforts to reconstruct the defeated South. In imposing abrupt changes in men's institutions, those in power did not consider the importance of cultural continuity.
- A. Recreation of society and economy was the most pressing problem facing the nation after the war.
 1. Destruction of life and property was evident throughout the defeated South.
 2. The Negroes, newly freed by the Thirteenth Amendment, were handicapped socially and economically.
 3. The political status of the Confederate states and citizens was in doubt.
 - B. Congressional reconstruction sought to change drastically Southern society.
 1. The Congress refused to readmit the representatives of the Southern states reconstructed under the Lincoln-Johnson plan.
 2. Military occupation of the Southern states was prescribed until the states developed governments acceptable to Congress.
 3. New constitutions and governments were established, revolutionizing Southern political life.
 - a. The traditional leaders were disenfranchised.
 - b. The former slaves were made citizens, given the right to vote, and put into a position of leadership. Republicans campaigned actively for the Negro vote.
 - c. To guarantee these reforms, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments had to be ratified.
 - d. The Republican reconstruction governments were run by a coalition of carpetbaggers, scalawags, and freedmen under the protection of the federal army.
 - e. Certain other reforms were made, such as tax-supported schools, revised tax schedules, abolition of debtors' prisons.
 - C. White Southerners reacted with bitterness to military reconstruction. They strove to restore their former patterns of life.
 1. They developed various means to restore themselves to a position of dominance in society.

- a. At first, they struck back violently through secret organizations like the Ku Klux Klan.
 - b. Devices such as the grandfather clauses, poll taxes, white primaries, and literacy tests were used to keep the Negro from voting.
 - c. Segregation of the races in all areas of life became a dominant trend. The Negro was once again placed in an inferior social and economic position.
2. They also tried to re-establish their economy.
 - a. Production of staples continued to dominate the Southern economy, as sharecropping and tenant farming replaced the plantation system.
 - b. Although transportation was improved and new industries such as cigarettes, textiles, and oil developed in the South, the economy remained essentially agrarian into the twentieth century.
- VI. There are no easy solutions to social problems. Problems arising from the Civil War and Reconstruction era are still prevalent today.
- A. The nation is still sharply divided on the civil rights issue. The race problem is one of the most crucial problems facing the country today.
 - B. Although sharecropping has been declining in recent years, it continues to be a serious social problem.
 - C. Although inroads have been made in the Democratic stronghold, the South has a one-party system with all of its limitations.

TEACHING PROCEDURES

INITIATORY ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a bulletin board display entitled "The Civil War Is Felt Today." Use pictures and newspaper headlines to illustrate effects. Ask for volunteers to keep the display up to date during the unit.
2. Use a magazine or newspaper article on a recent civil rights issue or on a recent election to initiate a discussion showing how these issues and others can be traced back to the Civil War period. Point out the need for finding out more about a period which has had such lasting effects upon American society.
3. Give a pretest to determine the extent to which students have misconceptions about the causes of the war, conditions of slavery, and other aspects of the era.
4. To determine the extent to which students have been influenced by legend, have them discuss the reasons why Lincoln has become such an important symbol in American life. Tape this discussion and replay it later in the unit. If a written activity is preferred, have each student write an essay on Lincoln as a symbol of American life. Have the students write reappraisals later.
5. Read aloud quotations from three or four historians, each represent-

- ing a different interpretation of the Civil War. Have the class discuss these viewpoints. (Tape this discussion and replay it after the class has completed its study of causes of the war.) Point out the difficulties of historical interpretation, the role of bias, and so forth. Suggest that reading during the unit should help students decide which historian is most nearly right.
6. Give a pretest to discover the ability of students to evaluate sources of information. Discuss the results. Point out the need for evaluating sources in this unit by reading aloud passages from biased materials.
 7. Since the Civil War period has been portrayed often in fictional materials, introduce several novels to the class for concurrent reading. Give students time to browse through the novels to create interest.
 8. If biographies are preferred to fictional accounts, introduce the class to available books which cover this era. Put some of the book jackets on the bulletin board with excerpts from student reviews of past years under each. Have the students formulate questions to guide their reading. Describe the value of note-cards so that students can take proper notes as they read. Have the students serve as resource persons during class discussions which concern the personalities about whom they have read.
 9. Have students read rapidly from different textbooks to gain an overview of the unit. For example, poor readers might use Gavian and Hamm, average readers Canfield and Wilder or Todd and Curti, and better readers Bailey, or Carmen and Syrette (see bibliography). Before students begin reading, remind them that their reading rate should be different from that which they use when reading for detail. Ask each student to list the four or five topics he finds most interesting. Use these lists to help prepare a sheet of suggested activities for the class.
 10. Have class members select individual and group activities to investigate as they study the causes of the Civil War. A number are suggested below in the approximate order in which they might be presented in order to develop the suggested outline of content. Before beginning work on the topics, discuss with the class ways of improving oral and written work. For example, have them use the criteria which they developed at the beginning of the year to evaluate progress on oral reports in the last unit and to identify specific things on which they should work. If students have not presented panels or debates previously, or if their presentations need improvement, take time to discuss methods of making such presentations effective. Have students working in groups prepare brief written progress reports every day or every other day.

DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITIES

11. Have students review the federal-state relationship prior to 1850. Discuss the challenges to federal authority, the divergent interpreta-

tions of the Constitution, and the implications of this conflict. Have students build a chart tracing challenges to the supreme law of the land. Include in the chart a column on the cause of discontent, one on the section of the country most involved, and one on the action taken by the federal government. Have students continue this chart during the unit.

12. Have a group of students find out how their state felt about the approaching Civil War and the part it played prior to the war. Advise them to check local resources.
13. Have a group of students make maps locating the farming areas, mercantile areas, manufacturing sites, and routes of transportation in the North for 1820, 1840, and 1860. These maps can be made individually or as overlays. The class can use these maps as it discusses significant economic changes of this period.
14. Have a student use an historical atlas or *Historical Statistics* to compare maps of population or population data for the period 1800-1860. Let him write a report analyzing his findings in terms of their implications for the struggle between the North and the South.
15. Suggest that a student pretend he is a pre-Civil War planter who visits New York in 1858. He can write a series of letters to his wife describing features of Northern life which differ from those in the South and the factors which worry him about Northern strength.
16. If nothing has been done on the reform movements of 1830-1860 in a previous unit, consider these here, possibly by an informal lecture. Emphasize the climate of opinion and the impact of the reform movements on Northern and Western society.
17. If students have been reading novels (see activity 7), hold a class discussion in which they present their findings in terms of the biases of the authors and the conflicting descriptions of Southern life.
18. Have the students compare and evaluate eye-witness accounts of prewar Southern life. Either prepare a dittoed series of eye-witness reports or have students read in the many collections of such materials. Discuss the findings concerning conditions of Southern life and the validity of witnesses.
19. If activities 17-18 have not been used, have a group of students present a symposium on the conditions of plantation life in the antebellum South. Review with students the purposes of a symposium and aid them in selecting the information and in organizing the report.
20. Hold a panel discussion on the Southern defense of slavery.
21. Delegate a student to present an oral report on the movement against slavery in the South.
22. Have a group of students make a series of maps. On one they can locate the areas of large plantations, sites of Southern industry, and districts where cotton, tobacco, and rice were grown. Have them make a plastic overlay map of per capita slaves in Southern districts and superimpose this map over the other.

23. Have a student construct a graph showing cotton and tobacco exports for 1800, 1820, 1840, and 1860 and explain the implications of the graph to the class.
24. Assign several students or the entire class to prepare papers evaluating the reasoning behind the statement: "Cotton is King, sir; the North can not make war on cotton and win!"
25. Delegate a student to construct a graph showing wheat and corn production by states in the years 1800, 1840, and 1860. Have him explain to the class the reasons for the shift in leadership among the states.
26. Have the class compare and evaluate dittoed excerpts from eye-witness accounts of life on the Northwestern and Southwestern frontiers. Contrast frontier conditions with life on the seacoast, North and South.
27. Use an opaque projector to show a series of maps of various territories which were prominent in the prewar controversies. Discuss the significance of different features of the areas. Display pictures of these areas on the bulletin board. Attach them by string to the appropriate locations on large outline maps of each area. Ask students to compare patterns of different phenomena in these areas in an attempt to generalize about their usefulness for production of crops in which slave labor could be employed. Get volunteers to use a book on historical geography to find out whether or not these hypotheses can be verified.
28. Have a group of students present a "You Are There" program on the Senate debate over the admission of Missouri in 1820.
29. The Compromise of 1850 produced one of the most stirring debate in American history. Have a group of students analyze the role played by Webster, Benton, Clay, Calhoun, and Houston in these debates and present their findings orally or in writing.
30. Have a student draw a series of cartoons, representing different viewpoints on some important event prior to the Civil War (for example the Compromise of 1850 or the Dred Scott decision).
31. Assign students to present oral reports on the following questions: "How successful was the underground railroad?" "The fugitive slave law: did the North obey it?" "Who opposed the abolitionists in the North?"
32. Or, have a student write a paper on the ways in which Northern states obstructed efforts to enforce the fugitive slave law. Have him explain why this action was a threat to the federal union.
33. Have the class pretend that it is the Senate of 1854 which is considering the Kansas-Nebraska bill. Have each student choose a state to represent and determine what role a Senator from that state played in the original debate. The bill can be introduced, discussed and voted upon.
34. Let a student imagine that he is a representative of the federal go-

- ernment and is investigating the clashes in Kansas. Have him prepare a written report of his findings.
35. Have students present oral reports on the following topics: "Founding of the Republican Party and Its Stand On Slavery," "Abolitionist Propaganda: Accounts of Slavery in the South," "Why Did the Supreme Court Decide That Dred Scott Was Still a Slave?"
 36. Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* was one of the most effective pieces of propaganda produced in the Civil War era. Assign a student to read the novel and write a paper on its reception both at home and abroad.
 37. Have a student write a series of letters concerning the Dred Scott decision to the editor of the *New York Times*. Include letters from a Republican, a Douglas Democrat, a Southern Democrat, and an abolitionist.
 38. Have a student imagine that he is a reporter writing a series of articles on the Lincoln-Douglas debates.
 39. Have a student find out what actually happened in the John Brown raid and why it caused such nationwide excitement and hysteria. Have him present his findings in a written report. Or have a group of students prepare an informal debate on the topic: "John Brown: Rabble-rouser or Martyr?"
 40. Have groups of students prepare panels on the following topics: "Constitution: Provoker of the War?" "The West: Provoker of the War?" "Slavery: Provoker of the War?" and "Plantation Life vs. Industrialization: Provoker of the War?" Hold a culminating discussion on the causes of the war.
 41. Or have a group of students debate the causes of the war under the following question: "Resolved, that slavery was the chief cause of the Civil War."
 42. If activity 5 was used, replay the tape and ask students to examine their original viewpoints on causes of the war in the light of the knowledge they have acquired.
 43. Have a group of students prepare a symposium on the fateful election of 1860. Or have the class discuss the election as an immediate cause of the war. In advance, have a student prepare charts analyzing the election results, popular and electoral. In addition, use a dittoed copy of the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession to show the Southern reaction to Lincoln's victory. Use this document in a reading exercise and as a review of the states' rights interpretation of the Constitution.
 44. Have a group of students prepare a two-page newspaper, complete with news items, editorials, background commentary, and fashion notes, for the day after Lincoln's election. Make the paper one for their local area. Have another group make a similar paper which might have appeared in a different section of the country.
 45. Have a group of students dramatize events in Washington following South Carolina's Ordinance of Secession. They can use the pattern

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33. Have the class pretend that it is the Senate of 1854 which is considering the Kansas-Nebraska bill. Have each student choose a state to represent and determine what role a Senator from that state played in the original debate. The bill can be introduced, discussed, and voted upon.
34. Let a student imagine that he is a representative of the federal gov-

paper offices and county museums, and talk with people whose families have lived in the area since the Civil War. Suggest that they locate realia from the period. Have them prepare a display of materials, including replicas which they can make.

57. Have several students compare the reporting of key battles in Northern and Southern newspapers. They will find accounts in the *Confederate Reader* and in the *Union Reader*.
58. Have a student write a report based on firsthand accounts of life in the Northern and Southern armies.
59. Suggest that a student read and report on firsthand accounts of prison conditions in the North and in the South.
60. Ditto several pages of firsthand accounts of army life and discipline, draft riots, bounty-jumping, and prison conditions. Use the material in a discussion of the problem of manning the Union and the Confederate armies.
61. Have a student prepare a written report on the part played by the railroads in the war effort. Assign another student to prepare a report on advances in military and naval weapons and tactics.
62. Have a student give an oral report on: "Was the blockade the key to victory?" or "What were the effects of the blockade on Southern life?" Suggest that a student prepare charts on tonnage of items carried through the blockade.
63. Have a committee present a panel discussion: "Did England hold the balance of power in the War Between the States?"
64. Read aloud to the class Sherman's own account of his march through Georgia to motivate a discussion on the justification of his tactics.
65. Have a student use *Historical Statistics* and the *World Almanac* to prepare a chart comparing American casualties in the Revolution, the War of 1812, the Civil War, World War I, and World War II. Use this chart in a discussion of losses.
66. Have a panel or class discussion on the topic: "Why Did the North Win the War?" Use this discussion to: (1) bring together an appraisal of military leadership and strategy; (2) raise the question of the role political leadership played in the outcome of the war. Use the second point to lead into a discussion of the many problems facing the president in the Civil War.
67. If activity 66 is not used, discuss the problems facing the president in this crisis. Review the chief powers which the Constitution grants the president of the United States, as well as the precedents set by past presidents facing crises.
68. Use an opaque projector to show students some of the cartoons in *Lincoln in Caricature*.
69. Have students prepare oral reports and debates on the topics: "Government by Edict: Use of Executive Decrees by Lincoln," "The Emancipation Proclamation: Lincoln a Politician or Humanitarian?" "What Were Lincoln's Views About Slavery?"

- of "on-the-spot news broadcasts" used by radio and television reporters for modern political conventions.
46. Have a student make a map showing the areas in the Southern states which favored and opposed secession. Show this map along with the series prepared in activity 22 and have the class see what conclusions they can draw from the data.
 47. Have a student prepare an oral report, trying to answer the following question: "Could Buchanan have arrested the approaching war?"
 48. For a review, have the class choose the significant events, 1850-1860, and build a timeline to establish the pattern of these events. Have students evaluate the significance of these events and their relationships to one another. Also have the class build a chart comparing Northern and Southern strength in 1860, using the data already prepared in previous activities.
 49. Introduce the section on the war by showing the Brady war photos which are available in book form, on slides, and on film. Other pictures are available in *Divided We Fought*.
 50. Have students read textbook sections for the war years 1861-1865 to see the chronology of events. After the reading is completed, have them do an exercise in which they arrange the following events in chronological order: Emancipation Proclamation, Gettysburg, Lincoln's Assassination, Vicksburg, Antietam, Appomattox, Trent Affair, Sherman's March.
 51. Have a committee prepare a two-page newspaper for their home town for the day after the attack on Fort Sumter. Use the pattern suggested in activity 44. Students might include imaginary interviews with Lincoln and with Jefferson Davis.
 52. Have a student prepare an overlay map for the map made in activity number 46. It should show the chief features of Union's attack. Have the student explain the reasons for choosing these lines of assault.
 53. Divide the class into five or six groups, each one to investigate one of the major battles of the war. Have students read authoritative accounts as well as accounts by participants in the battles. Also have each group prepare a large-scale map of the battle area. Have each group leader present the findings of his group in an illustrated oral report.
 54. Or have each of the five or six groups, investigate a significant war personality such as Lee, Grant, Jackson, Sherman, Farragut, or Morgan. Have students read primary accounts of these men as well as accounts in the *Dictionary of American Biography*. Have the group leaders report findings to the class.
 55. Have a student read two or more viewpoints on some outstanding military figure of the period and write an analysis of his personality and of the competency and bias of the authors.
 56. Assign a committee to add a chapter to a class booklet on "Our Town in American History." Suggest that they visit the local news-

- war. Discuss the question of bias as well as the accuracy of the reports.
84. Or have a student read firsthand accounts of the destruction in the South after the war. Suggest he analyze three accounts and prepare a paper on his findings.
 85. Have a group of students prepare a dramatic report of the opening session of Congress on December 4, 1865. Suggest they use "on-the-spot" interviews like those of present-day newscasters.
 86. Have students make a chart comparing Johnson's plan for reconstruction with that of Congress. Discuss the ways in which the president and Congress tried to check one another in carrying out a reconstruction plan.
 87. Have a symposium in which students consider the problems facing the newly freed slave as well as the attempts to adjust him to his new role in society.
 88. Have a student read Booker T. Washington's *Up From Slavery* and, in a written report, compare it with other firsthand accounts of the Negro in the South during Reconstruction.
 89. Have a student give an oral report on the struggle over ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment. Suggest he include the 1866 congressional elections.
 90. Discuss the motives of the Radicals in seeking Johnson's removal; then show the film of Johnson's impeachment. As a sequel to the movie, discuss the ways in which Congress attempted to control the Court in this era.
 91. Have a student report on the role of the Ku Klux Klan during Reconstruction. Follow the report with a discussion of other means which the whites used to return to political control.
 92. Have a student report on the disputed election of 1876 or on the South Carolina election of the same year.
 93. Suggest that a student prepare a series of cartoons representing different viewpoints on the election of 1876.
 94. Have a student prepare a graph on cotton exports in 1860, 1870, 1880, and 1890. Compare the chart with that made in activity 23.

CULMINATING ACTIVITIES

95. Have a summarizing discussion comparing conditions in 1880 with those in 1850 to see if the outcomes of the war had solved the problems giving rise to it. For example, compare economic and political balance between regions, status of the Negro in prewar and postwar days, and the effect of the war on acceptance of the Constitution as the supreme law of the land.
96. To review the time framework for this period, have a discussion based upon the student-made charts, graphs, and maps. Use 1860 as an illustrative pivotal date. Demonstrate differences before and after the date for certain economic phenomena which helped shape political events (for example, railroad construction, settlement of

70. Have a student prepare a written report on the topic: "Why Was the Thirteenth Amendment Necessary to Free the Slaves?"
71. Have several students analyze certain aspects of the Lincoln legends in oral or written reports. Possible topics: "The Slave Market Story," "The Anne Rutledge Story," "Mary Todd Lincoln."
72. Have a student pretend to be a news commentator who analyzes the significance of the election of 1864.
73. Have a student present an oral report on: "Why was Andrew Johnson chosen as Lincoln's running mate in 1864?"
74. Have a committee prepare a "Hear It Now" program in which they interview Charles Francis Adams in London during the Civil War.
75. Have a group of students present a symposium on Northern opposition to the War.
76. Suggest that another group debate the topic: "Resolved, that the security of the nation justified Lincoln's restriction of civil liberties."
77. Have students write reports on such topics as: "How effective was the government loyalty program?" "An evaluation of the book, *Who Murdered Lincoln?*"
78. Have a class discussion in which students evaluate Lincoln's effectiveness in meeting the crisis which he faced. Discuss Lincoln's leadership in comparison with the Confederate leadership as a factor in the Union victory. If a tape was made as suggested in activity 4, replay it and have students appraise their original ideas. If an essay was written, as suggested in activity 4, have students do a written appraisal at this time. Compare the two sets of papers.
79. To introduce the section on reconstruction, use an opaque projector to show scenes of the South at the close of the war. In addition to the Brady photos, good illustrations are found in *The Desolate South*.
80. Following the pattern used in activity 5, read aloud quotations from historians about the Reconstruction era. Discuss these viewpoints with the class, pointing out once again the problems of historical interpretation.
81. Have students read different accounts of the Reconstruction. Have some read the usual text treatments; have superior students read sections in the Amherst pamphlet, *Reconstruction in the South* or in standard works on the Reconstruction period. Have students take notes indicating which interpretation of the Reconstruction period is found in their reading. Have them prepare questions to aid in their note-taking.
82. Have a group of students consult the *Dictionary of American Biography* on the leading personalities of the Reconstruction era. See that they take careful notes on actions and attitudes toward reconstruction policies. Use these students as resource persons in class discussions of policies.
83. Have students read dittoed excerpts from Carl Schurz, John T. Trowbridge, and Richard Taylor on conditions in the South after the

- (3) BRAGDON, HENRY W., and McCUTCHEON, SAMUEL P. *History of a Free People*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1958.
- (5) CARMEN, HARRY J.; SYRETT, HAROLD C.; and WISHY, BERNARD. *A History of the American People*, Vol. 1, rev. ed. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1960.
A college textbook.
- (2) GAVIAN, RUTH WOOD; and HAMM, WILLIAM A. *United States History*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1959.
- (2) GRAFF, HENRY F., and KNOUT, JOHN A. *The Adventure of the American People*. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1959.
- (3) TODD, LEWIS PAUL, and CURTI, MERLE. *America's History*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1950.
- (2) QUILLEN, I. JAMES, and KRUG, EDWARD. *Living in Our America*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1956.

BIOGRAPHIES AND AUTOBIOGRAPHIES

- (5) DONALD, DAVID. *Lincoln Reconsidered*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1956.
Good analysis of Lincoln myths.
- (2) FREEMAN, DOUGLAS SOUTHALL. *Lee of Virginia*. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1958.
A one-volume work for adolescents by the foremost authority on Lee.
- (3) GILL, JOHN. *Tide Without Turning, Elijah P. Lovejoy and Freedom of the Press*. Boston: Starr King Press, n.d.
- (3) KENNEDY, JOHN F. *Profiles in Courage*. Paperback, C238. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1956.
Includes sketches of Webster, Benton, Houston, Edmund Ross, and L. Q. C. Lamar.
- (5) RANDALL, JAMES G. *Lincoln the President*, 3 vols. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1945ff.
The standard work in the field.
- (3) RANDALL, RUTH E. *I Mary: A Biography of the Girl Who Married Abraham Lincoln*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1959.
A book for adolescents. Based on the author's scholarly reinterpretation of Mrs. Lincoln.
- (1) STERLING, DOROTHY. *Freedom Train, The Story of Harriet Tubman*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1954.
- (5) THOMAS, BENJAMIN P. *Abraham Lincoln*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1952.
- (3) WASHINGTON, BOOKER T. *Up from Slavery*. Paperback, FC37.
New York: Bantam Books, Inc., 1959 ed.

- the west, industrial development, cotton production, wheat production, immigration). Using the same date, point out the relationship of events occurring throughout the world (for example, unification movement in Italy and Germany as compared with nationalist movement in the United States; the freeing of the serfs in Russia as compared with the rising democratic thought in the United States).
97. Have students interview Southerners and report on their analysis of the present-day attitude toward Congressional reconstruction.
 98. Have a student prepare a map showing patterns of farm ownership in the South today. Ask the student to explain his findings to the class.
 99. Have a student analyze the last four presidential elections and give a report on: (1) the strength of the Democratic party in the Southern states, and (2) the areas of decided Republican power. Discuss the findings and relate them to the Civil War and Reconstruction period.
 100. Discuss current news articles which show the problems of racial attitudes and segregation in the United States today. Have a student prepare a map showing the density of Negro population throughout the nation today. Have another student report on the percentage of Negroes voting in the South. Ask for volunteers to form a follow-up committee to bring current news related to this unit to the attention of the class during the remainder of the year.
 101. Give a unit test. Readminister the pretest on evaluating sources, or give a similar test. Discuss the results.

MATERIALS OF INSTRUCTION

Because of space limitations, only sample selections from the original resource unit are printed here. They show the great variety of materials available. The reading level of books is indicated by the following key which appears before the author's name.

- (1) Very easy reading for juniors and seniors in high school.
- (2) Easy reading for juniors and seniors in high school.
- (3) Average reading for juniors and seniors in high school.
- (4) For good readers among juniors and seniors in high school.
- (5) For superior readers among juniors and seniors in high school.
- (*) Selections in this collection vary in difficulty from easy to difficult.

TEXTBOOKS

- (2) AUGSPURGER, EVERETT, and MCLEMORE, RICHARD A. *Our Nation's Story*. River Forest, Ill.: Laidlow, 1960.
 - (4) BAILEY, THOMAS A. *The American Pageant*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1956.
- A college textbook which is exceedingly readable.

- (5) ROZWENC, EDWIN C. (ed.). *Slavery As a Cause of the Civil War*. Problems in American Civilization Paperback. Boston, D. C. Heath & Co., 1949. Presents different historical interpretations.
- (*) STAMPP, KENNETH M. (ed.). *The Causes of the Civil War*. Paperback, PH 1. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Original accounts such as speeches and editorials plus differing historical interpretations.
- (4) TAYLOR, RICHARD. *Destruction and Reconstruction*, ed. by Richard Harwell. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1955. A firsthand account of battles and the Reconstruction period.
- (4) TROWBRIDGE, JOHN T. *The Desolate South, 1865-1866*, ed. by Gordon Cardall. New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, Inc., 1956.
- (*) TRYON, WARREN S. (ed.). *A Mirror for Americans*, 3 vols. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952. Reports by American travelers in the East, the South, and the West.
- (2) WINTHER, OSCAR OSBURN (ed.). *With Sherman to the Sea, The Civil War Letters, Diaries, and Reminiscences of Theodore F. Upson*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1958. Eye-witness reports by an adolescent boy who accompanied Sherman.

PICTORIAL TREATMENTS

- (1) HUGHES, LANGSTON, and MELTZER, MILTON. *A Pictorial History of the Negro in America*. New York: Crown Publishers, Inc., 1956.
- (2) DONALD, DAVID. *Divided We Fought, A Pictorial History of the War, 1861-1865*, 2 vols. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952.
- (3) LORANT, STEFAN. *Lincoln: A Picture Story of His Life*, rev. ed. New York: Harper & Bros., 1957.
- (3) LORANT, STEFAN. *The Presidency, A Pictorial History of Presidential Elections from Washington to Truman*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1953.
- (3) MEREDITH, ROY (ed.). *This Was Andersonville*, by John McElroy. New York: McDowell Obolensky, Inc., 1957. Memoirs accompanied by profuse illustrations.
- (3) MEREDITH, ROY (ed.). *Mr. Lincoln's Camera Man*. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1946. Includes photos by Mathew Brady.
- (4) WILSON, RUFUS R. *Lincoln in Caricature*. New York: Hougan Press, 1953.

OTHER NON-FICTION

- (4) BOYKIN, EDWARD C. *Congress and the Civil War*. New York: The McBride Co., Inc., 1955.

PRIMARY SOURCES AND BOOKS OF READINGS

- (*) ANGLE, PAUL M. (ed.). *The Lincoln Reader*. Paperback, GC23, Cardinal Giant. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1954.
Contemporary accounts and historical interpretations. Does not include results of most recent research.
- (2) BOTKIN, B. A. (ed.). *Lay My Burden Down*. Paperback, P24, Phoenix Book. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.
A collection of reminiscences by former slaves.
- (*) BRADFORD, NED (ed.). *Battles and Leaders of the Civil War*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956.
Firsthand narratives by participants from both side.
- (*) COMMAGER, HENRY STEELE (ed.). *The Blue and the Gray, The Story of the Civil War as Told by Participants*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1950.
Firsthand accounts illustrating people's feelings at the outbreak of the war, and describing such things as army life, prison life, life behind the lines, blockade runners, Sherman's March to the Sea, and reactions to Lee and Lincoln. Includes statements by Lee and Lincoln.
- (5) GARFINKLE, NORTON (ed.). *Lincoln and the Coming of the Civil War, Problems in American Civilization* Paperback. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1960.
Includes statements by Lincoln and Douglas as well as conflicting historical interpretations.
- (*) HARWELL, RICHARD B. (ed.). *The Confederate Reader*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1957.
Includes firsthand accounts and Confederate publications for the war years.
- (*) HARWELL, RICHARD B. (ed.). *The Union Reader*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1958.
- (*) JONES, KATHARINE M. (ed.). *The Plantation South*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1957.
Eye-witness accounts of the South.
- (2) MIERS, EARL (ed.). *When the World Ended, Diary of Emma Le Conte*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1957.
The brief memoirs of a sixteen-year-old girl during the sacking of Columbia, South Carolina.
- (4) OL MSTED, FREDERICK LAW. *The Slave States Before the Civil War*, ed. by Harvey Wish. Paperback, Cap. N7, Capricorn Books. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959.
Selections from three books written by Olmsted after his travels in the South.

- (4) FULLER, EDMUND. *A Star Pointed North*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

A fictionalized biography of Frederick Douglass, a slave who escaped and became a leader in the abolitionist movement.

- (4) EHRLICH, LEONARD. *God's Angry Man*. Paperback, C128. New York: Pocket Books, 1954.

A fictionalized account of John Brown.

- (2) EPSTEIN, SAMUEL and BERYL. *The Andrews Raid; or the Great Locomotive Chase*. New York: Coward-McCann, 1956.

The story of Union volunteers who captured a Confederate locomotive.

- (*) FENNER, PHYLLIS REID (compiler). *Brother Against Brother; Stories of the War Between the States*. New York: William Morrow & Co., Inc., 1957.

- (4) MITCHELL, MARGARET. *Gone With the Wind*. Paperback, M7500. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1954.

Not difficult reading, but lengthy and for mature students. Abounds in a wealth of information about conditions in the South during the war and the Reconstruction period.

- (1) SAYRE, ANNE. *Never Call Retreat*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1957.

Tells the story of a Northern Quaker family that settled in the South after the war.

- (3) STONE, IRVING. *Immortal Wife, The Biographical Novel of Jessie Benton Fremont*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1944.

Good on the elections of 1850 and 1860 and on Lincoln's position on slavery.

- (4) STONE, IRVING. *Love Is Eternal, A Novel About Mary Todd Lincoln and Abraham Lincoln*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1954.

- (3) STOWE, HARRIET BEECHER. *Uncle Tom's Cabin*. New York: Modern Library, Inc., 1948.

A classic from the Civil War period.

- (2) SWIFT, HILDEGARDE. *Railroad to Freedom*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1932.

A fictionalized account of Harriet Tubman and the underground railroad.

- (3) THANE, ELSWYTH. *Yankee Stranger*. Paperback, C103. New York: Pocket Books, Inc., 1953.

Shows both the Northern and the Southern viewpoints toward the Civil War.

- (4) COCHRAN, HAMILTON. *Blockade Runners of the Confederacy*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1958.
- (4) DONALD, HENDERSON H. *The Negro Freedman*. New York: Abelard-Schuman, Ltd., 1952.
- (4) DOWDY, CLIFFORD. *The Land They Fought For*, Mainstream of America Series. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1955.
A history of the Confederacy by a Southerner.
- (3) EISENSCHIML, OTTO. *Why Was Lincoln Murdered?* Paperback, 15-Universal Library. New York: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1937.
A highly controversial interpretation.
- (5) FRANKLIN, JOHN HOPE. *From Slavery to Freedom, A History of the American Negro*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1956.
- (1) KANTOR, MACKINLAY. *Gettysburg*, Landmark Book. New York: Random House, Inc., 1952.
- (1) KELLY, REGINA S. *Lincoln and Douglas—The Years of Decision, 1854-1861*, Landmark Book. New York: Random House, Inc., 1954.
- (4) NEVINS, ALLAN (ed.). *Times of Trial, Great Crises in the American Past*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1958.
Reprints a series of articles from the *American Heritage* on Buchanan and Douglas, Antietam, the impeachment of Johnson, and Grant's administration.
- (4) REDDING, SAUNDERS. *The Lonesome Road*, Mainstream of America Series. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1958.
A history of the American Negro.
- (5) STAMPP, KENNETH M. *The Peculiar Institution, Slavery in the Antebellum South*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1956.
- (3) WILLIAMS, WAYNE C. *A Rail Splitter for President*. Denver: University of Denver Press, 1951.
The story of the election of 1860.

ARTICLES

- (3) CATTON, BRUCE. "Hayfoot, Strawfoot," *American Heritage*, VIII, No. 3, (April, 1957), 31-37.
Describes army life and soldiers during the Civil War.
- (3) O'FLAHERTY, DANIEL. "The Blockade that Failed," *American Heritage*, VI, No. 5, (August, 1955), 38-41, 104-5.

FICTION

- (1) CATTON, BRUCE. *Banners at Shenandoah, A Story of Sheridan's Fighting Cavalry*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1955.

3. Include sections on accuracy and completeness of data and generalizations on checklists used in evaluating oral and written work.
4. After class discussions, write anecdotal records of pupils' comments which indicate understanding or lack of understanding of major generalizations.

OF SKILLS

1. Use objective test items on: (a) evaluating sources of information, (b) chronology, (c) reading and comparing maps. Sample items for (a) and (b) can be found in Morse and McCune, *Selected Items for the Testing of Study Skills and Critical Thinking*, Bulletin 15. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1957. Map items can be made by duplicating maps from an historical atlas and asking multiple-choice questions which force students to note changes over a period of time. Or maps can be made of an imaginary country, showing changes in population, land use, election returns, etc., and pupils can be given questions to determine whether or not they can read these maps. Imaginary maps have an advantage over real maps because pupils cannot get the right answer by recalling information taught in class.
2. Write anecdotal records on: (a) comments in class discussions about sources of information and drawing inferences from maps, (b) reading habits exhibited by students during study periods.
3. Include sections on evaluating sources of information and on oral and written skills in checklists used in evaluating oral and written work.
4. Make out a checklist to use in evaluating reading notes.
5. Give students a question in which they are presented with several eye-witness accounts of some event during the war. Prepare brief sketches of the authors and a list of statements about the event. Ask students to write an essay in which they indicate which of these statements they can accept as established by the testimony of the witnesses, which they must reject as disproved, which are probably true or probably false, and on which they must reserve judgment because of conflicting evidence presented by equally adequate witnesses. They should state the reasons for their conclusions.

OF ATTITUDES

1. Include sections on evaluating sources of information on checklists used in evaluating oral and written work. Note extent to which students attempt to evaluate information.
2. Write anecdotal records on comments in class discussions which: (a) show that students have or have not been evaluating sources, (b) indicate interest or lack of interest in the period, (c) indicate a change in attitude toward viewpoints other than their own, and (d) indicate a change in attitude toward ease of solving problems growing out of the war and the Reconstruction period.

ATLASES AND OTHER REFERENCES

ADAMS, JAMES TRUSLOW (ed.). *Atlas of American History*. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1943.

LORD, CLIFFORD and ELIZABETH. *Historical Atlas of the United States*, rev. ed. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1953.

Dictionary of American Biography. New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons, 1928-1936, and supplements.

Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1957. Washington: Department of Commerce, 1960.

World Almanac and Book of Facts. New York: New York World Telegram. Current edition.

FILMSTRIPS

Brady's War Between the States, Parts I & II. 107 frames, black and white, silent, captions. Museum Extension Service, 1955.

Country Divided and United. 46 frames, color, silent, captions. Museum Extension Service, 1955.

Problem of Slavery. 22 frames, color, silent, captions. Eye Gate, 1955. Junior high level, but can be used individually by low-ability students.

Slavery and the War Between the States. 40 frames, black and white, silent, captions. Yale University Press, 1954.

When Cotton Was King. 46 frames, color, silent, captions. Museum Extension Service, 1955.

FILMS

Jefferson Davis Declares Secession. 6 minutes, sound, black and white. Teaching Film Custodians, 1942.

Excerpts from a full-length feature film. Shows scene in Senate.

Johnson and Reconstruction. 33 minutes, sound, black and white. Teaching Film Custodians, 1942.

Excerpts from a full-length feature film. Includes Johnson's impeachment.

EVALUATION

OF UNDERSTANDINGS

1. Use multiple-choice items such as can be found in Anderson, Lindquist, and Stull, *Selected Test Items in American History*, Bulletin 6. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1957.
2. Give students an essay question such as: "As President during the Civil War Lincoln faced many problems. Choose three of these problems and explain what Lincoln did about them and what effects his actions had upon the nation."

6. Listening to a pertinent radio broadcast or watching a television program

Using community resources (See Ch. 20)

1. Having a guest speaker who is qualified to discuss some aspect of the unit topic
2. Sending pupils to a public meeting to hear a speaker or watch a rally
3. Having pupils interview their parents or others in the community about their opinions concerning questions which are pertinent to the unit
4. Using a field trip (Although generally more useful later in the unit, trips can help arouse interest.)

Conducting experiments and demonstrations related to the unit topic

Using oral and listening activities

1. Having an informal lecture by the teacher, to present an overview of the unit topic or to give interesting information about it
2. Reading a quotation, excerpts presenting contrasting points of view, a short story, a poem, an article, or a case study related to the unit topic (R.U., 5)
3. Using buzz groups to discuss case studies or excerpts presenting conflicting points of view
4. Using class discussion, along with other procedures, to explore student background for the unit or to develop awareness of the significance of the unit topic for their lives (R.U., 4)

Using reading materials

1. Introducing reading materials via short comments by the teacher, reading of comments by students from other classes, or annotated bibliographies (R.U., 7, 8)
2. Having a browsing period with non-text materials (R.U., 7)
3. Giving a reading assignment for an overview of the unit topic (R.U., 9)

Using teacher-pupil planning

Using committees to investigate available library and community resources for the unit study

Using buzz groups to identify questions for study (after overview reading)

Using a steering committee to work with the teacher on plans for the unit

Using class discussion of plans for study of unit

Selection of individual and committee work (R.U., 10)

DEVELOPMENTAL ACTIVITIES

Reading activities to locate and gather information

Silent reading

1. Of text materials (R.U., 50, 81)
2. Of non-text materials, such as magazines, specialized accounts,

Appendix B

MASTER CHECKLIST OF ACTIVITIES*

INITIATORY ACTIVITIES

Utilizing expressed interests of students or current situations of interest

Using a question or interest growing out of study of previous unit

Taking advantage of student comments or questions about a topic
(questions arising from out-of-class experiences and interests)

Using discussion of current events related to the topic (R.U., 2)

Using a current radio or television program, a play or motion picture dealing with a theme that is related to the unit topic

Arranging experiences to arouse interest

Administering and discussing pretests, polls, or attitude scales dealing with aspects of the unit topic

1. A test of basic understandings (R.U., 3)

2. A test of a skill which will be emphasized in the unit (R.U., 8)

3. Written definitions by pupils of key concepts in the unit (R.U., 4)

4. A published-opinion poll on information or attitudes related to the unit topic (Compare class results with published results.)

5. An attitude scale

Presenting and discussing audio-visual materials (See Ch. 19)

1. Showing a film, a filmstrip, or a collection of slides

2. Projecting charts, cartoons, or pictures

3. Using a bulletin board display (R.U., 1)

4. Setting up an exhibit of realia, models, or books on the unit topic

5. Playing a recording of appropriate music, speech, or play

* The teacher may use this checklist as an aid in unit planning, to remind himself of the wide range of procedures and activities from which he may select. The parenthetical references (as R.U., 2), indicate examples which may be found in the Resource Unit in Appendix A.

- Using the chalkboard
- Using maps and globes (R.U., 14, 27, 46, 52)
- Projecting study materials with opaque projector or overhead projector
- Using timelines (R.U., 48)
- Activities using community resources to gather information (see Ch. 20)
 - Conducting interviews
 - Going on field trips or attending public meetings
 - Inviting guest speakers to address class
 - Using examples from the community to clarify discussions
 - Conducting polls and surveys
 - Using museum resources (see R.U., 56)
 - Using local library facilities
- Oral activities to present information (see Chs. 8 and 10)
 - Discussion of speaking skills and development of criteria concerning effective presentations (R.U., 10)
 - Oral reports (R.U., 21, 31, 35, 62)
 - Small-group discussions (panels, symposiums, town meetings, debates) (R.U., 19, 39, 40, 63, 76)
 - Class discussion based on reading and other sources, and to summarize at end of subunits (R.U., 11, 17, 66, 78)
 - Viewing and discussing films on discussion techniques
 - Using buzz groups to share information
 - Student-produced dramatizations, news roundups, and other programs (may be presented to class or broadcast over school public-address system or local radio station)
 1. Scenes from the lives of people, past or present
 2. Role-playing in mock meetings (R.U., 33)
 3. "You Are There," "Hear It Now" or "Backgrounding the News" programs (R.U., 28, 74)
 4. News roundups of reactions from various capitals of the world to a significant event, past or present
 5. On-the-spot interviews or reporting patterned after current radio and television reporting, featuring events studied in unit (R.U., 45, 85)
 - Arranging for students to practice reports and small group discussions, record them on tape, and listen to their own work in order to evaluate and improve it
- Written activities to present information (see Ch. 10)
 - Discussion of methods of improving writing techniques
 - Exercises on bibliographic and footnote form, and on organizing material
 - Research reports (R.U., 14, 32, 58)
 - Book reports, critical reviews and comparisons of books (R.U., 55)
 - Essays or themes discussing a question or an event (R.U., 24)
 - Editorials or a news column for the school newspaper

biography, fiction, poetry, folklore (R.U., 53, 54, 81, 82, 84)

3. Of duplicated materials excerpted by teacher (R.U., 18, 26, 60)

Oral reading by students of a short story, poetry, selections from speeches, student compositions

Exercises to develop reading skills, such as reading for main ideas, skimming, adjusting rate and method of reading to purpose (see Ch. 9)

Demonstrations and exercises in locating information through use of card catalogue, specialized guides, standard reference books, parts of textbook

Discussion and exercises on evaluating reading materials (see Ch. 13)

1. Discussion of characteristics of a reliable witness or authority (R.U., 18)

2. Exercises and discussion on checking reliability of sources, identifying assumptions, determining relevancy of materials, checking limitations of data, checking for inconsistencies, identifying bias and/or persuasion devices (R.U., 26, 83)

Discussion, demonstration, and exercises on collecting information from reading sources (see Ch. 13)

1. Reading and/or discussion on how to take notes

2. Demonstrations on chalkboard of taking notes on text material

3. Comparison of good and poor note cards

4. Development of a set of abbreviations for use in note-taking

5. Check on student outlines and note cards by teacher during supervised study periods

Listening activities to gather information (see Ch. 10)

Discussion and exercises to improve ability to listen

1. Exercises on listening for main ideas or for organization, on taking notes while listening, on identifying assumptions, persuasion devices, etc., in speeches

2. Discussion of what makes a good interview; role-playing of an interview situation

Listening to oral presentations and to class discussion (R.U., 31, 64, 80)

Listening to radio programs, recordings, and dramatizations (R.U., 42)

Activities using audio-visual materials to gather information (see Chs. 19, 11, and 12)

Developing skills needed in using audio-visual materials

1. Discussion and exercises on reading maps, globes, timelines, graphs, and pictures

2. Discussion and exercises on identifying biases of films, filmstrips, and recordings, and evaluating reliability of information presented in these media

Using films, filmstrips, and slides (R.U., 90)

Using still pictures and cartoons (R.U., 49, 68, 79)

Using graphs and charts (R.U., 23, 25)

Using bulletin board displays, felt board displays, and exhibits of models and realia (R.U., 56)

2. Classroom experiments, as an experiment on testimony, using the film, "Fidelity of Report."

Class exercises on time and place concepts

Diagnostic tests on skills, and tests over subunits

CULMINATING ACTIVITIES

Summarizing and synthesizing activities

Class discussion (R.U., 95, 100)

Presentations by panels, symposiums, or other small groups

Outlines, summaries, and lists

Timelines and discussion of pivotal dates (R.U., 96)

Review exercises and games

Quiz programs, conducted in the manner of any popular radio or television program, utilizing content of unit

Written activities, such as preparation of a unit "Who's Who" or an essay in which the student discusses a major issue related to the unit

Mock legislative sessions, elections, trials, or sessions of the Constitutional Convention, the United Nations General Assembly, or similar activity related to unit topic

Production and showing of filmstrip or film on unit topic

Use of educational film or filmstrip to summarize aspects of unit study

Action activities

School assembly program

Participation in community pageant or celebration

Program for PTA or other community organization

Radio broadcast

Displays for school corridor, town library, or store windows

Letters to congressmen, other government officials, or newspapers

Service projects in the community

Evaluating activities

Unit tests

Checklists and inventories

Evaluative discussion of unit by class

Follow-up activities, as establishing a committee to follow news about aspects of the unit topic (R.U., 100)

Establishing leads to the next unit, through discussion

Letters to a newspaper or a government official expressing the student's views and urging specific action

Imaginative writing based on study of background material

1. Imaginative diaries or accounts of trips
2. Imaginary letters to a friend about a trip or about life in a particular region, or to a newspaper or congressman (past or present) about an important issue related to the unit topic (R.U., 15)
3. Imaginary editorials for a newspaper, commenting on issue studied in unit
4. Rip Van Winkle stories
5. Imaginary newspapers or newspaper articles of period treated in unit (R.U., 38, 44, 51)
6. Short stories set in the period covered by the unit or concerned with individuals who are caught up in a problem situation studied in the unit
7. Poems on topics involved in the unit study
8. Imaginary interviews with leading figures studied in unit
9. Collections of social history materials to illustrate conditions of daily life, as A Homebook of Medical Remedies or A Book of Games and Entertainment for the period or region studied

A guide book or historical account of the local community (R.U., 56)

Report of interviews or field trips

Scrapbooks containing written introductions and summaries of clippings or other materials

Drawing and construction activities to present information (see Ch. 19)

Making charts, graphs, time lines (R.U., 48, 65, 86, 94)

Making maps and globes (R.U., 13, 22, 46)

Drawing cartoons representing different viewpoints on an issue (R.U., 30, 93)

Drawing sketches and pictures, as of historical characters, costumes, architectural forms, tools, types of transportation

Setting up exhibits and displays, and explaining them to class

Making models and dioramas

Dressing dolls or clothespins to represent costumes or characters of period

Making sandtable scenes and maps

Making standard slides, or transparencies for use in overhead projector (see Selected Readings, Ch. 19, Frye and McMahan, and Sands)

Making opaque projection strips (See Selected Readings, Ch. 19, Sands)

Making a feltboard display (See Selected Readings, Ch. 19, Sands)

Making a class filmstrip or film (See Selected Readings, Ch. 19, Dale)

Making 2 x 2 slides (See Selected Readings, Ch. 19, Flanders)

Miscellaneous activities

Demonstrations and experiments

1. Demonstrations, such as writing on clay, using cuneiform symbols, or making a local cost of living index

Satisfac-
toryNeeds Im-
provement*Voice and Speech*

Has a well-modulated, pleasantly pitched voice

Pronounces words correctly, clearly, without affectation

Uses correct grammar, idiom

Has well-chosen, broad vocabulary, avoids slang

Has a generally cultivated speech pattern

Responsibility, Reliability

Is always prompt in keeping appointments, in completing work undertaken

Completes routine reports, records, etc., punctually

Accepts a full share of work to be done

Carries through successfully on jobs undertaken

Leadership, Initiative

Takes the lead, without domineering, in planning and executing plans

Displays good judgment, balanced reactions

Meets unexpected situations constructively

Has courage to support his convictions

Character, Ethical Standards

Is honest, intellectually and in his actions

Maintains high standards in conduct

Respects honest efforts and convictions of others

Human Relations

Is genuinely interested in others

Is genuinely friendly, courteous, tactful in relations with others

Knows and applies basic rules of etiquette

Puts others at ease, is at ease in social situations

Is a good listener, an interesting conversationalist

Is cooperative, can give and accept suggestions in a constructive manner

In conflict situations, accepts reasonable compromise without violating his own integrity.

Appendix C

CHECKLIST FOR PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

	<i>Satisfac- tory</i>	<i>Needs Im- provement</i>
<i>Health, physical and emotional</i>		
Has adequate reserves, of energy, is rarely sick		
Maintains normal weight		
Maintains erect posture, standing, sitting, or walking		
Has regular program of medical and dental care		
Has generally optimistic outlook on life		
Is even-tempered, controls extreme moods		
Has realistic self-picture, realistic aspiration level		
Is free from excessive, trivial worries		
Is free from excessive shyness, daydreams		
Is self-critical, but not excessively so		
Has inner resources to meet recreational needs		
Has a healthy sense of humor		
<i>Appearance</i>		
Maintains a high level of personal hygiene—cleanliness of skin, hair, nails, teeth		
Wears appropriate, attractive clothing		
Is consistently well-groomed, clothing well cared for		
Women: cosmetics, jewelry, etc., in good taste		
Men: clean-shaven appearance		
Is well-poised, pleasant in expression		

Quite Well	Better than aver- age	Ade- quate- ly	Some	Very little
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To what extent:

Ancient history
United States government
Comparative government
International relations
Economics
Sociology
Geography
Anthropology
Social psychology

4. Have I acquired a BASIC KNOWLEDGE of these topics and geographic areas?

Conservation of natural resources
The United Nations System
Social implications of atomic energy
Intergroup relations
Comparative religion
Far East
Middle East
Near East
Africa
Latin America

5. Am I able to draw upon the following field to ENRICH MY UNDERSTANDING AND TEACHING of the social studies?

American literature
World literature
Modern adolescent literature
Drama
Music
Art
Architecture
General science

6. Have I acquired a BASIC UNDERSTANDING OF THESE PROFESSIONAL FIELDS as they relate to social studies teaching?

Human development
Psychology of learning
Philosophy of education

Appendix D

A SELF-INQUIRY CHECKLIST FOR SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

To what extent:

Quite well	Better than aver- age	Ade- quate- ly	Some	Very little
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1. Do I know and understand the **METHODS OF SCHOLARSHIP** in the social sciences?
2. Have I acquired a **BASIC KNOWLEDGE OF THESE SOCIAL SCIENCE FIELDS?**

United States history
 Modern European history
 Medieval history
 Ancient history
 United States government
 Comparative government
 International relations
 Economics
 Sociology
 Geography
 Anthropology
 Social psychology

3. Am I keeping up with **RECENT SCHOLARSHIP** in these fields?

United States history
 Modern European history
 Medieval history

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Quite well	Better than aver- age	Ade- quate- ly	Some	Very little
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To what extent:

History of education
Educational sociology
Curriculum principles
Methods of teaching

7. Am I keeping up with RECENT SCHOLARSHIP in these professional fields?

Human development
Psychology of learning
Philosophy of education
History of education
Educational sociology
Curriculum principles
Methods of teaching

8. Have I utilized the following to INCREASE MY COMPETENCE as a social studies teacher?

Graduate study
Planned reading
Research and publication
Workshop participation
Planned travel
Work in social studies organizations
Service to community
Service to school

* * *

In view of the above self-ratings, which of the following means of professional improvement should I emphasize during the coming year?

—graduate study —planned reading program —research and publication
—workshop participation —planned travel —work in social studies organizations
—service to community —service to school

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